

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXII

SEPTEMBER 1914

NUMBER 7

STANDARDS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

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One American institution which English and German visitors cannot understand is our free high school, open to all comers. Nor can they sympathize with our management of these schools. The German looks over the course of study, attends some of our classes, and goes home to tell his colleagues that our students have a good time but do not do thorough work. The few English educators who have cared to inspect our high schools see in them little to distinguish higher schools from elementary schools; they go home to Eaton and Winchester and even to the new municipal high schools wondering how we expect to develop our governing class.

Criticism of American high schools is heard also from anxious observers on this side of the Atlantic. We have been doubling our attendance and our equipment in recent years; we now have more than a million and a quarter students in our public high schools. Have we been maintaining standards? When a boy fails in mathematics, what do we do with him? Everyone knows the answer: we shunt him into history or science and keep him in school for the supposed good of his mind and soul. He loses little, if any, of his self-respect or of his athletic privileges; indeed, in the real world in which he moves failure in mathematics may operate to elevate him to a position of enviable superiority. We have

invented devices which free the student from the necessity of taking examinations. We have elaborated an elective scheme of studies which makes it possible for each to suit his tastes and secure admission to cultivated circles by the most agreeable path.

What is true of our high schools is true of our colleges. The time was when a college education was the high and distinctive privilege of the boy preparing to enter one of the professions. Our Bureau of Education tells us that now 20 per cent of the graduates of thirty-seven leading colleges enter business¹—evidence enough that the old-fashioned exclusiveness of the college as the home of the professional class has given way to a new cosmopolitan idea. With the passing of the old college, the pessimists tell us, we have lost our intellectual standards. As in the democratic high school, so in the college, we have snap courses and excesses of social life; we have evasion of examinations and weak administrative officers who will not send students away when they fail in their courses. We grant endless exemptions and permit irregularities which reduce our courses of study to a pretense and our college discipline to a farce.

The simple remedy for all these difficulties is to set up rigid standards and eliminate those who cannot meet requirements. The writer remembers hearing the advice of a cynical trustee who saw the evils to which reference has been made. "Follow the wholesome example of West Point," he said. "They eliminate 60 per cent of their matriculants." The spirit of the remark is clear and will commend itself to many a despairing teacher who sees his academic standards giving way under the competition of the elective system and the stress of administrative pressure to keep students in college and high school.

The straightforward method of erecting rigid standards and of eliminating those who fall short is so obvious a cure for our difficulties that one is forced to the conclusion that everybody has seen this possibility and rejected it as an un-American solution of our problem. We are indeed able to set up standards, we could eliminate students, we know how to conduct examinations, but we refuse to do all these. Why?

¹ *Bulletin No. 19, 1912. Whole No. 491, p. 78.*

The account which will some day be written of the new American attitude on the elimination of students will, I believe, constitute one of the most interesting chapters in the history of education. We have adopted the position that we will not use our schools as the social agency which terminates the careers of some boys and girls while it puts a few in the positions of leadership. We are in process of creating a new type of society, one in which the selection of the men and women who lead is made in the trades and professions themselves. The ancient system of academic selection, which still survives in Europe, seems to have failed in many of its forms, and a new social order has arisen in which the processes of selection are new in type. The new scheme of selection is only half conscious of itself, and there is in many quarters alarm because the old safeguards have disappeared and the new order does not seem as safe and effective in its production of leaders.

Perhaps the simplest way to bring out the real character of the American movement is to contrast with our practices those of Germany and England.

The first day a German boy goes to school he is made to recognize the fact that he is securing through this school his place in the social order. If he goes to a common school or *Volksschule* he knows he is part of the common people whose duty it is to carry patiently the heavy, coarse burdens of life and to build the empire from below. In some quarters, as for example in the cities of Saxony, he is classified further, by his father's ability to pay for his education, into a mere commoner or a commoner of higher rank. If he is in the latter class, that is, if he goes to a *Burgerschule*, he gets the same course of study but he pays more. His later privileges in life are like those of his poorer neighbor but he has had the advantages of a degree of exclusiveness and this exclusiveness he knows about and doubtless enjoys.

The boy who goes to the secondary school or *Gymnasium* is the future citizen who is made most fully aware of the importance of the school as a social selective agency. The *Gymnasium* is the home of those who are to have privileges when they enter the army. The *Gymnasium* is the road to civil-service positions. The *Gymnasium* is the only path which one may follow to enter

the professions. The *Gymnasium* has no smack of the plebeian about it, for its fees and its discipline are high. The exclusiveness of the *Gymnasium* is not fully defined even in these terms, for while it is a matter of pride to the boy that he may enter the *Gymnasium*, it is also a matter of anxiety, since there are those in charge of this institution who know well the value of a certificate of completion of its course. Every director and every teacher in a *Gymnasium* knows that every boy is eager to secure the social advantages that come to the successful student, and the slightest failure to meet the exacting demands of this school is promptly pointed out as a mark of unfitness to enter upon the higher privileges of society. The American observer who visits the classes of the *Gymnasium* is impressed by the solicitude shown by the boys. A word of reproof from the teacher brings the flush to the boy's cheek or even the tears to the boy's eyes, because everybody knows and feels keenly that the privileges of society are in the hands of that teacher to give or to withhold.

The spirit of all this is perhaps best illustrated by a remark that the writer heard an eminent German educator make after hearing an account of the growth of our American high schools. "A million and a quarter high-school students," he said, "would constitute in Germany the gravest kind of a social menace."

In contrast with this German stratification of the school population, and in contrast with the systematic and strenuous elimination of all who are not worthy to be elevated to the highest positions, our American schools seem very loose and careless. How many American boys take their seats with tears in their eyes because the teacher expresses doubts as to their preparation in geometry? The American boy does not feel that there is much at stake. He knows that the high school is made for him and not he for the one supreme task of holding with a desperate grasp to the high-school privilege as the passport to all the opportunities of official and social life. Is it any wonder that the Germans who visit our schools note a difference in the concentration of our students? Is it surprising that we are impressed in Germany with the instruction and organization of the higher schools?

One finds in Germany that among the intelligent members of society who do not enjoy social advantages, as for example among

the teachers of the common schools, there is an earnest demand for the removal of barriers. No teacher in the higher schools is an advocate for this reform. The common-school teachers are eager to hear about America; they go so far as to talk about the far-off day when there shall be a path from the common school of Germany upward: but that sounds today like an idle myth. Is not the present system making Germany great among the nations? There is need of hewers of wood and drawers of water, there is need of a few leaders who know their places. Indeed, be it admitted, there can be little doubt that the system now in operation achieves in a most impressive degree its purposes. We in America import too many of those thoroughly drilled and highly efficient products of the upper schools of Germany to be in any doubt as to the perfection of that system of selection. Why not adopt the system? Again the answer comes out of the life of our people. The system is not American and we could not follow it even if we came to the clear intellectual conviction that it is theoretically the best system. Half consciously we feel that some day in the future it will be proved that the system of Germany is wrong. Out of the lower levels of society must come the material for later leadership. What if it takes two or three, or even five, generations to evolve by the slow process of natural selection those who shall bring new ideas and new vigor into our social organism? May it not be true in society as in nature that a forced selection comes to its own end by degeneration of the stock, while a slow natural selection makes a vigorous stock which in the long run outlasts the highly selected aristocracy? What if our schools seem inferior today, if we can show tomorrow a generation of a higher type?

This criticism of the German system is not theoretical. Their own vigorous thinkers are calling attention to the need of a reform of the lower schools. The American observer who fails to visit the *Volksschule* and comes back advocating a wholesale adoption of the German plan of education has missed one of its most characteristic elements. The German *Volksschule* is literally an instrument of social suppression. It destroys initiative and limits the horizon of its pupils. It is the home of dogmatic conservatism. If there are two institutions in the world which we do not want in this country they are the German army and the German *Volksschule*.

England stands somewhere between Germany and America in the use of her schools as selective agencies. If a boy goes to Eaton he is very conscious of his destiny as a leader of men. He may have to go home again and play a minor rôle through life, but if so, he will do it with becoming dignity. The boy who enters one of the council schools in Leeds or Sheffield or Liverpool is likely to understand that he is not yet, at least, on the road to high official position. The school is, however, not the determining institution. Soon the boy in Eaton and the boy in the council school become aware of the true instrument of English social selection. It is the qualifying examination. The American in England is impressed most profoundly by the body of respectable educators who make what must amount to a substantial part of their livings by examining the rest of the world. His majesty's inspectors examine people. There are corporations at Oxford and Cambridge which are prepared to examine anyone at any stage of intellectual development. There are examining universities and colleges of preceptors. There are several examinations which let one into schools and more which let one out. One may take these apparently at his leisure if he has time and a patrimony, or he must take them in haste if he is poor and ambitious. Above all stand the professional and civil-service examinations, which lift one into the commanding positions in society and state.

Now and then a voice is raised in protest. Dr. Osler¹ made an attack last October on the examination system, declaring it to be Chinese and the bane of medical education. Now and then some official will tell you confidentially—most official information in England seems to be confidential—that many of the examinations are absurdly inefficient. But in the main the system is accepted as natural or inevitable or at least better than anything else. The American who remarks that at home he has learned to be skeptical about the possibility of judging people through examinations is promptly suppressed by the remark that Americans do not know how to conduct examinations, and that some Englishman who has seen our western high schools has reported that they exhibit a deplorable lack of form, due probably to the absence of a succession of Oxford locals.

¹ *Lancet*, October 11, 1913, p. 1047.

These English examinations are very real facts in the lives of English students. The boy who can pass well an examination has open to him on very advantageous terms the next higher school opportunity. There is a bewildering array of scholarships in England. No secondary school is free; that is, everyone who goes must pay a fee or have a fee paid for him. But to the individual who passes a good examination many schools are free because his fee is paid by a scholarship. Secondary schools have greatly increased in number and enrolment since 1902, when the present type of school organization was adopted, and yet there is no thought in England of opening the doors of these schools as we do in America to all who wish to enter. The formula is, "pass an examination." If you do this you may come, often free; often with an added stipend to pay for your books, your board, and even some of the luxuries of life.

The American student of education finds this system most artificial. It may be proper, so far from the scene of action, to report that the Oxford local examinations, which are taken more than any others, are frankly described everywhere except in the offices of the Corporation at Oxford as so easy that everyone is critical of them. If one looks into individual cases he can find teacher after teacher pointing out the fact which we have long known in America that the fluent, aggressive student often passes a better examination, while the slow and bashful student knows more. The criticism is the more fundamental when it is noted that the boy who is most aggressive and fluent at twelve is not always the boy who turns out best at sixteen.

The writer heard the English system expounded by one of the civil-service board not long since. To the mind of that official the system is most satisfactory. Back in the family life of England, as he put it, the brainy child is selected and the whole family sets about the task of training him for the examinations. While the common members of the family play and resign themselves to lives of obscurity, the picked representative labors and sacrifices and foregoes all the petty pleasures of innocent dissipation. By and by this selected boy gets a scholarship. His work doubles and his mind grows. He gets another. Now he goes to Winchester and lives with a picked group of kindred souls selected from all England.

He needs no stimulus but the hope of new scholarships. He keeps his masters busy finding him tasks and examining his well-nigh perfect productions. The reality of his duty as a superior citizen is so vivid to such a boy in such a place that one naturally pauses to ask what there is like it in America. The answer sounds on the whole rather discouraging: There is nothing like it.

Since we have nothing of the kind, we are naturally led to ask as our next question: Shall we try to imitate the English system? The first consideration which suggests a negative answer to this question is the fact that the English system of examinations does not seem to operate with the precision and effectiveness exhibited by the German method. If we are going to set up in our schools a selective system let us have the best we can find. The teacher in the *Gymnasium*, who controls at every moment the progress of his class, has a much more vital influence over his students than does the English teacher, whose work is from time to time interrupted by an outside examination. So true is this that many English teachers frankly confess that they find in the German schools examples which they recognize as superior in technique of instruction and in degree of intellectual discipline.

The comparison of England with Germany is, however, relatively unproductive as contrasted with the immediate observation that the English system does not provide for the student who does not get the scholarship. The poor boy who goes only to the lower school and then enters upon the humbler calling to which he has access is very likely to take the opportunity of coming to America, on the ground that here his children will have a fair opportunity.

This brings us back to the fact which discourages the pessimist. Our schools open their doors to all. Our schools are free. Our schools make a great effort to keep all the students in attendance. Our schools turn out on the same date the highly intellectual and those who barely pass. Our schools do not try to pick out the leaders but aim to give everybody some training.

If one defends with enthusiasm our American system he lays himself open to the charge of helping to destroy standards, and the professional teacher dreads nothing so much as to be looked down upon by his brethren and characterized as easy in his marks. There is probably no one who is so proud as the young instructor

who "jacks up" a class or an institution by giving conditions and failures more freely than anyone has ventured to give them before. The present writer is not patriarchal enough to be entirely free from anxiety about his reputation for academic severity, but he begs leave to indulge in a few favorable comments on our American schools and the underlying principle which characterizes them as contrasted with the German and English systems.

The most obvious fact about our schools is that they try to accept all students and provide each student with something he can profitably do. This leads to all sorts of readjustments in individual cases. This student starts a course in Latin and finds, as he thinks, that it is not what he needs. That student takes a commercial course and through studying mathematics gets interested in engineering and finds that his commercial preparation does not fit him for admission to Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Teachers become exasperated at times because in their classes are mixed the earnest and the experimenters who are wandering about trying to find some subject which will really attract and hold their attention.

A second obvious fact in American education is that teachers are trying out every conceivable type of material which can be used for class instruction. The high schools in St. Louis and Cincinnati, for example, are so broadly inclusive that one sometimes wonders at their boldness. With forge-shops and laundries in the basement and swimming-tanks on the top floors, with rooms for dressmaking and mechanical drawing mixed with science laboratories and libraries, where are we to look for the end of this experimentation? Furthermore, even the most enthusiastic advocate of all these new subjects has to admit that the courses are not standardized. We are so busy introducing them that we have not settled a great many questions as to their relative values and as to the best ways of coupling them in the individual student's program with the older and more systematized courses.

Taking these two sets of facts as the text of our discussion, we may formulate a principle which will set our educational system into the most striking contrast with the systems in Germany and England. American schools aim to distribute students into those lines of study which best suit their individual capacities and best suit the possible further needs of society. Just so long as

there seems to be the remotest possibility of better adaptation to the future we go on with the experiment of training the individual. We do not know about the future and we do not care to apply to that remoter social order the standards of today. This seems expensive and at times it is almost expensive enough to justify anxiety lest it should drive us into intellectual bankruptcy. But we take courage from our study of biology, for have we not learned that all evolution is enormously expensive? If it prove true that our experiments ultimately produce greater flexibility of mind and action, we shall be justified. There are many of us who have seen the English and German schools and believe that American schools are producing more flexible, more adaptive minds.

Furthermore, in this matter of standards the case is not hopeless. Who shall set up a social standard? None other than the social group itself. Study the group and you have the best basis of future action. One humble illustration of this is to be found in our newer and wiser treatment of defective children. Formerly we used to try to make them learn to read and write as did their normal neighbors. Now we are growing wiser, we teach them to do the best they can. Perhaps the girl can learn to do domestic work. We train her to the top of her bent, using her time and energy better than if we tried to take her out of her class and make her read. So with the boy who can learn to be a carpenter efficient enough to earn a living. Reading is a desirable goal of education but it is an absurd standard for many a subnormal child.

The lesson we have learned in dealing with our subnormals is significant for normals too. The teacher who fails 40 per cent of his algebra class has mistaken the social group with which he has to deal. He ought to take a course in statistics. He would learn that a social standard can be fixed only by a consideration of the social group itself. Thus algebra is a well-organized subject in itself, but it may be a very bad instrument of education for certain social groups. In technical educational discussions this fact is expressed in the statement that school work must be organized with due regard to the needs of students rather than with exclusive regard to the logical character of the subject taught. Some ill-advised critics of American schools have thought that we are weakly considering the lazy students when we adopt this social standard. The fact

is, it is much more of a task to teach algebra so as to fit it to the needs of students than it is to teach algebra with the relentless purpose of eliminating those who do not get on with the course when it is organized with chief regard to the subject itself.

The recognition of social standards is our American contribution to education. Everywhere, in our university departments of education, in our normal schools, in the offices of our school superintendents and principals, in faculty meetings, and in the individual classrooms, vigorous scientific work is going on, discovering social standards of education and learning the art of applying them. To the observer who knows only the earlier type of standard it will often seem that we have no standards at all. One is bound to admit too that there are students and perhaps even teachers who have not learned the new lesson and indulge in the ease which seems to be offered by the withdrawal of the older rigor. With all such let us be patient. The slow process of selection will go on. The school will let the boy or girl through; he or she will have freedom and attention and go out into real life; be sure that ultimate natural selection will place him. If we had been wiser in the school, we might have aided society in placing the individual with less friction and loss, and some day the school will be a more intelligent distributing agency. But it is better for the race that we should work out this new idea than that we should be rigorous in the old way, the German way, or the English way.

One final comment suggests itself. In all its fundamental characteristics the American school expresses the spirit of American social life. From time to time some enthusiast for German schools tells us we ought to borrow the methods and standards of those schools. Especially are we flooded at this time with recommendations that we adopt the German system of industrial education. There is one general answer to all these invitations to imitate. We could not borrow their schools and their educational standards without taking on their attitude toward the more general social problems. The German school is the expression of a national spirit. Let him who is impatient with our schools look beneath the surface and see how our schools are in reality developing a new and broader social standard, unique in the world, and intelligible only to those who appreciate the truly democratic spirit.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HISTORICAL STUDY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of this thesis is to show the development of historical study in the secondary schools from its crude beginnings in colonial times to the present scientific treatment of it. In order to do this it is necessary to understand the early development of history in England, the opinions of English educational writers concerning it, and the character of the early English textbooks of history, as these influenced colonial education, and as the textbooks were used in this country.

The data obtainable on the colonial secondary schools do not produce conclusions of the most definite kind. Advertisements of colonial schools may show in general the type of education, but whether the advertised curriculum was carried out or not is an uncertain point.

Of the secondary period, the accounts are meager and unsatisfactory. Reports of schools come late in the nineteenth century, and when the records of the secretaries of the boards of trustees of academies have been preserved the course of study either is left out entirely, or scant information concerning it is given. In New York, the reports of the Board of Regents on academies began late in the eighteenth century and continued throughout the nineteenth century. Unfortunately the early volumes are inaccessible and only the volumes commencing with 1836 have been used.

The high-school movement, which had its early beginnings in Massachusetts, has been fully treated in a doctoral dissertation by Alexander J. Inglis, of Columbia University.

The reports of the Committee of Ten and the Committee of Seven give the later conditions of history study, and have had great influence in shaping the present teaching of history.

I. THE ENGLISH BACKGROUND

The beginnings of history as a secondary subject in England.¹

—In the pre-Reformation schools there was little that could be called historical study. The effect of the Renaissance on history was indirect, causing a desire to understand the events found in the classics. History was not regarded as a subject study, and the scientific treatment of it was developed later, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. "Fragmentary history" describes this early condition. Historical quotations were used freely as this gave variety and illustrations for themes and orations.

When historians began to write in English the readers were chiefly of the nobility. It was not until the end of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth century that history was regarded as a subject to be read by any class other than the nobility.

The establishment of history as an academic subject was in 1622, when William Camden, a history-writer and traveler, and headmaster of Westminster School (1583-99), endowed a readership in the University of Oxford. In 1628 a lectureship was established in history at Cambridge. It is interesting to note that it was the headmaster of Westminster School who took this first step.

In the seventeenth century greater interest was evidenced in history. History was regarded as reading-matter, a graduate subject, and a study for the nobility, clergy, and gentry. These three classes were looked on as the representatives of the "people in the Body Collective, who had not the abilities to read and much less to judge."²

There were three channels through which history gradually sifted into secondary schools. Probably the most important one was the several headmasters who were noted historians. Alexander Ross (1652), headmaster of the Southampton Grammar School, expressed his opinion in his preface to his history, that history was necessary for schoolmasters, so that the pupils may have matter for their orations and exercises.³ Richard Knolles,

¹ The material for this topic is based on Foster Watson, *The Beginnings of the Teaching of Modern Subjects in England*, chap. ii, pp. 45-88.

² Foster Watson, *op. cit.*, pp. 54-55.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 60-61.

headmaster of Sir Roger Manwood's Grammar School at Sandwich, and Mr. John Langley, headmaster of St. Paul's School in the Commonwealth, were two other historians who probably enlivened their teaching with their knowledge.

The second one was a few textbooks written with the direct purpose of being used in the schools. Coote, in his *English Schoolmaster*, 1556, made a brief chronology, "so that a Grammar scholar may learn to know when his authors, both Greek and Latin, lived, and when the principal histories in them were done." *Angloricum Praelia*, written in 1580 by Christopher Osland, a schoolmaster, was the first book published intended for school use and for the development of patriotism. It was written in Latin verse, and was an account of the wars of England between 1327 and 1522, and also contained a poem on Queen Elizabeth and the peaceful state of England. This book was ordered by the Privy Council to be used in the grammar schools, and was well recommended.

The third channel was the long histories which were epitomized, and in that way developed into texts fit for secondary schools.

Geography¹ was closely correlated with history and was regarded as necessary for an understanding of history. Thus the two studies had much the same development.

Summarizing, we find that both history and geography did not occupy distinctive places in the education of youth, that the value of them was relative to other subjects, and that only higher classes were supposed to study them. The development of history as a secondary-school subject is shown by the facts that (1) longer accounts were epitomized; (2) schoolmasters were historians; (3) the value of such a subject was being realized; (4) history was needed for a better understanding and appreciation of the classics.

The character of history textbooks previous to the Revolution.—The eight historical textbooks, all printed in the eighteenth century, which were examined, were two on Roman history, two on English, one a chronology, and three compendiums. They were all written for students, but only one recommended itself directly to schools.²

¹ *Op. cit.*, chap. iii.

² *A New and Easy Method to Understand the Roman History*, etc. Done out of French, with very large Additions and Amendments, by Mr. Thomas Brown. 1731.

Extracts from these will show their content, character, and in some cases, the method of using the text.

Doctor Historicus or, A Short System of Universal History and an Introduction to the Study of It, by Thomas Hearne, M.A., of St. Edinburgh Hall, Axon, 1705, contains three books in the first volume; the first is a chronology of "all the most celebrated Persons and Actions from the Creation to this Time"; the second book is an introduction to history, "wherein an account is given of the writings of the Ancient Historians, Greek and Roman, with the Judgement of the Best Criticks upon Them, together with an Ample Collection of English Historians"; the third book is a "compendium History of all the Ancient Monarchies and States from the Creation to the Birth of Christ, Extracted from the most Celebrated Authors, Ancient and Modern, Coins, Inscriptions, Manuscripts," etc.

A book which had its eighth edition in 1731, and which was written as a dialogue, was *A New and Easy Method to Understand the Roman History with an Exact Chronology of the Reign of the Emperors, an Account of the most eminent Authors, when they flourished; and an abridgement of the Roman Antiquities and Customs*.

A New History of England by Questions and Answers Extracted from the most Celebrated English Historians, 1742, had for its purpose the "introduction of the English Youth to the Knowledge of the history of their native country."

In the preface of *Chronology made familiar and easy to young Gentlemen and Ladies to which is added a Table of the most remarkable Events from the Beginning of the World to the Year 1747*, the author said that chronology was absolutely necessary to give "Light to History which is the most instructive and useful, as well as entertaining Part of Literature." Chronology was also "one of the eyes of history." Without chronology "all history would be little better than a Heap of Confusion, destitute of Light, Order, or Beauty."¹

In the *Students Pocket Dictionary; or Compendium of Universal History, Chronology, and Biography*, by Thomas Mortimer, Esq.,

¹ *Chronology made familiar and easy to young Gentlemen and Ladies*, chap. i. Evidently taken from Locke.

1777, there were two parts, Part I containing a compendium of universal history, and Part II a compendium of biography.

A companion book to the *Chronology* was a *Geography made familiar and easy to young Gentlemen and Ladies* published in the same Circle of Sciences, 1748. The author in the preface said: "It is confessed on all hands that the knowledge of history is one of the best accomplishments we can possess; it gives no Experience without grey hairs, and makes us wise at the labour and expense of others." But it was necessary to have some previous knowledge of the rudiments of geography "which together with chronology has been justly termed the Eyes and Feet of History." He then quoted Locke to prove his point. In teaching geography, the instructor should embellish it with history.

Another source of historical information was in the "companions" that were popular during the eighteenth century. *The Young Man's Book of Knowledge; Being a Proper Supplement to the Young Man's Companion*, by D. Feming, 1764, illustrates this. Part I contains a chronology, and Part V contains an account of Judaism, Paganism, Christianity, Mohammedanism, and heathen mythology. This book was recommended to the public in general, also to schools, by six schoolmasters.

Thus it may be seen that the treatment of history in books was of the chronological all-inclusive type. The classical side of history was another important feature. The method in use was that of question and answer, or dialogue.

Summary.—Early in the eighteenth century history held a prominent place in the thoughts of men who were interested in education. They saw the narrowness of the curriculum and, in trying to overcome that, recommended history as a liberal study. History was regarded as useful not only in connection with the classics, but also for its own sake. This is a favorable background, but it required two centuries before history became scientifically treated in its teaching.

The histories which were written at this time were crammed, one might say, with facts, but were historical hodgepodes, and did not touch the problematical side of history.

II. THE COLONIAL PERIOD

Types of the colonial secondary schools.—There were three main types of secondary schools in the colonies. The New England Latin grammar schools were founded for the specific purpose of preparing students for the university. This narrowed the course of study to the classical languages, and consequently history did not appear in the early curriculum. A few schools of private nature included history in their curricula.

As a result of the undemocratic attitude of these schools, private schools, offering a liberal course of education, sprang up in large numbers, especially in the well-populated centers. In Charleston, South Carolina, from 1760 to 1770, there were forty-three different schools of this type advertised in the newspapers. It was in these schools that history was occasionally taught.

The third type was the academy, which had its greatest growth after the Revolution. Benjamin Franklin was the first to use the name academy in this country. There are a few other cases where the name was used. These early academies had the same aim as the private schools, and their curricula were similar. It is very likely that many of the private schools developed into the incorporated academies of the following period.

In South Carolina there were nine school advertisements which included history in their course of study.¹ These were all in Charleston.

In the *South Carolina Gazette*, December 10, 1772, an academy for the eduction of youth was advertised to be opened by James Thomson, A.M., of New Jersey College. Its curriculum consisted of Latin and Greek and "such knowledge of the Antiquities, Mythology, and Geography of Greece and Rome as assist them greatly to relish the Spirit and Beauties of the ancient writers."

Another interesting advertisement was for the opening of a class for six young gentlemen, who, in addition to the study of the English language, would be initiated into the first principles of arithmetic, geometry, geography, history, and moral philosophy.

¹ *South Carolina Gazette*, October 9, 1762; November 30, 1747; October 22, 1750; June 15, 1767; May 17, 1770; October 20, 1771; December 10, 1772; February 21, 1749; June 20, 1769.

The remainder of the advertisement reflected the opinions of the English educational writers.

The utility of such an undertaking as this is, is too obvious to need any Recommendation, for however necessary the acquisition of the Latin and Greek tongues may be for those who are to be bred up in one or other of the learned Professions; yet surely it can be of little Consequence to those, who are to spend their Days in rural, mercantile, or mechanical employments, to pass away six or seven years in the study of dead Languages.¹

In these nine schools, classes, or projected schools, these courses were offered: history, not designating any special field, six; chronology, two; history of Great Britain, one; Roman and Greek history, one; ancient history, one; antiquities, one. From the specified fields, one can see that history which was related to the classics was evidently in demand.

In Maryland the schools advertised were mostly elementary plus Latin and Greek. There were also science schools, that is, schools which offered courses in mathematics, surveying, and navigation. There was no mention of history.²

In Georgia the conditions were much the same as in Maryland.³

Another way in which children were educated is shown in the following advertisement:

Colonel Nathaniel West Dandridge of Hanover County who maintains a tutor in his family is willing to accommodate ten pupils. . . . The branches of learning which the present tutor professes to teach are Reading, Writing, English, Latin and Greek, Grammar, Arithmetic, Book-Keeping, Ancient and Modern Geography, Chronology, History, Greek and Roman antiquities, mythology, etc.⁴

In New Jersey the same kind of private schools was in existence as in the southern colonies. There were found three references to history, two concerning the same school.

The students who attended the grammar school in connection with Princeton College were allowed to hear the public lectures on composition, criticism, chronology, and history.⁵ In this same school at an earlier date the Roman and Greek antiquities were

¹ *South Carolina Gazette*, June 29, 1769.

² Files of *Maryland Gazette*.

³ No mention of history in the *Georgia Gazette*.

⁴ *Virginia Gazette*, October 8, 1772.

⁵ Advertised in the *Virginia Gazette*, December 2, 1773.

studied "so that the scholar would be able to explain any word that refers to the manners and customs of the ancients, or the constitution of their several states."¹

The third notice is interesting because it shows still another view of colonial education.² It can hardly be called secondary education because it was designated as for "Gentlemen of Learning," and some of the subjects to be taught were above secondary grade. The studies advertised were Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, logic, mathematics, philology, philosophy, antiquities of Greek and Hebrew history, and theology.

In New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania the schools were more for preparatory work than those in the southern colonies. One grammar school was opened to prepare students for New Jersey College. This did not offer history but did offer geography, rhetoric, logic, and such other branches of literature as would qualify students for any class in the college, or would be most useful in public life.³

A preparatory school for Kings College was run by Thomas Jackson, who taught the Latin and Greek languages with the geography and antiquities requisite for the classics.⁴

The ministers and elders of the French church, desirous of encouraging a French school, allowed William Clajen to open a school in the consistory room where he prepared to teach English grammar, the use of maps, the elements of geography and history, and the general principles of the English constitution.⁵

In Pennsylvania five schools offered history in some form or other. Four of them were in Philadelphia. The fifth was the Germantown Academy.

In a resolution of the board of the Germantown Academy, March 3, 1764, it was resolved that "the instructions of the Youth in Languages Grammatically, and with suitable lectures at the same time, and also in Arithmetic, Mathematics, History, Logic and other branches of learning, with lectures, will undoubtedly

¹ *New Jersey Archives*, 1st Series, Vol. XXI, "Newspaper Extracts," pp. 383-84, (March 2, 1768 or 1769).

² *Ibid.*, IV (1756-61), 326 (February 8, 1759).

³ *New York Gazette*, November 19, 1764.

⁴ *New York Gazette and Weekly Post Boy*, May 30, 1762.

⁵ *Ibid.*, June 5, 1776.

tend to the most effectual advancement and knowledge of the Scholars and also to the reputation of the School."¹

One public grammar school in Philadelphia offered history in the fifth class.²

John Ormsby, "arrived lately from Newark College," offered courses in dancing and sciences, and "those who may fancy to study history and geography shall be welcome to the master's assistance without any additional expense."³

Charles Fortesene, "late Free School Master," taught the following subjects: the Latin tongue, English in a grammatical manner, navigation, surveying, mensuration, dialling, geography, use of globes, gentleman's astronomy, chronology, arithmetic, and merchants' accounts.⁴

The fifth announcement was that of the Academy of Philadelphia, opening for the winter term. This advertisement was published in the *Maryland Gazette*.⁵ The curriculum consisted of Latin, Greek, English, French, and German languages, together with history, geography, chronology, logic, and rhetoric; also writing, arithmetic, merchants' accounts, geometry, algebra, surveying, navigation, astronomy, drawing in the perspective, and other mathematical sciences with natural and mechanic philosophy.

The Academy of Philadelphia was planned by Benjamin Franklin. In his *Sketch of an English School*, 1741, which was for the consideration of the trustees of the academy, history had an important place. His plan was as follows:

First and second classes: Spelling and reading.

Third class: Speaking properly and gracefully, elements of rhetoric, short speeches from Roman or other history to be memorized, also chronology and the beginning of the reading of history which will proceed through the other classes—Rollin's *Ancient and Roman Histories* for the beginning, and ending with the best histories of our own nation and colonies.⁶ Also natural and mechanic history should be begun in this class.

Fourth class: Reading of history continued plus further instruction in chronology and geography.⁷

Fifth and sixth classes: Continuation of history reading.⁸

¹ Travis, *History of the Germantown Academy*, Smith ed.

² *Pennsylvania Gazette*, August 9, 1759.

³ *Ibid.*, September 20, 1753.

⁴ *Ibid.*, December 1, 1743.

⁵ *Maryland Gazette*, March 6, 1751. Dated Philadelphia, December 21, 1750.

⁶ *Franklin's Works*, II, 128.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 130.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 131.

This is the earliest recommendation for the study of American history. The only other case was in the grammar school of Thomas Byerley, New York, 1773. The plan of Franklin's historical courses was similar to that of George Turnbull in his *Observations upon Liberal Education*.

Franklin's plans for this academy were not carried out fully. In the original plans of the founders there were to be a Latin course and an English one. The rector was to be at the head of the Latin school, and was to receive two hundred pounds a year, for which he was to be obliged to teach twenty boys, without any assistance, the Latin and Greek languages, history, geography, chronology, logic, rhetoric, and the English tongue.¹ The English master was to receive one hundred pounds a year, for which he was to teach forty scholars, without any assistance, the English tongue grammatically, history, geography, chronology, logic, and oratory.

There was a quarrel between the Latinists and those believing in the English education. The English school was neglected, and the Latin emphasized, thus causing public dissatisfaction with the trustees.²

In Franklin's *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania* printed in 1759, the whole scheme of education was based on the study of history.³

The influence of other educational writers on Franklin is shown by his quotation of them. In this paper the authors quoted were Milton, Locke, *Dialogues on Education*, supposed to be by Mr. Hutchinson, professor in the college at Glasgow, Obadiah Walker, Mons. Rollin, Dr. Turnbull, and many others.⁴

In Massachusetts the same type of private school was in existence, but there was only one reference to historical study. A grammar school offered the following curriculum: reading, spelling, English grammar, arithmetic, letter-writing, composition in general, logic, rhetoric, oratory, the knowledge of the globe, geography, history, chronology, natural and moral philosophy, and the nature of civil government; also the "other parts of knowledge that are

¹ *Franklin's Works*, II, 139-40.

² *Ibid.*, p. 147.

³ Smyth, *The Writings of Benjamin Franklin*, II, 386-96.

⁴ *Ibid.*, editorial note, p. 387.

necessary to form the minds of Youth for entering on the stage with Advantage, and to make an amiable figure in the World."¹

Only one report comes from Connecticut. Colonel John Trumbull, the painter, who was in Mr. Trisdale's Lebanon School about 1766, wrote that he had "read with care Rollin's *History of Ancient Nations*, also his *History of the Roman Republic*, Mr. Crevier's continuation of the *History of the Emperors*, and Rollin's *Art and Sciences of the Ancient Nations*."² This school was still in existence in 1783 and had acquired great celebrity, and was attended by scholars from a distance.³

No history was found in the curricula of schools of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and North Carolina.⁴

Before concluding, there is one line of evidence which does not refer especially to secondary-school history, but which shows an attitude on the part of the colonists for historical study and reading. In all the colonial newspapers there are lists of books advertised which had been imported by booksellers. In these lists, the educational writers appear many times.⁵ Locke, Sheridan, Rollin, Turnbull, *Dialogues on Education*, Clarke, Milton, and Rousseau are all mentioned. Textbooks of history,⁶ and general histories,⁷ as Clark's *Compend of Universal History*, *Helps to English History*, and Brown's *Roman History*, were also advertised. Benjamin Franklin advertised a variety of small histories.⁸ This shows that the colonies were not without history. If there had not been a demand for these books, the booksellers would not have imported them.

¹ *Boston Gazette*, October 26, 1772.

² Henry Barnard, *American Journal of Education*, XXVIII, 794-95.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 797.

⁴ Files of *New Hampshire Gazette*, *Newport Mercury*; Charles Lee Raper, *Church and Private Schools of North Carolina*.

⁵ *New York Mercury*, June 16, 1755; January 5, 1767; *New York Gazette*, September 19, 1765; August 13, 1761; *Pennsylvania Journal*, January 6, 1755; *Boston Chronicle*, April 25 to May 2, 1768.

⁶ *Pennsylvania Mercury*, December 31, 1731; *Pennsylvania Gazette*, July 21, 1730; April 12, 1729; *Georgia Gazette*, May 17, 1775; April 14, 1763; *Boston News Letter*, July 4, 1751; February 18, 1770.

⁷ *Pennsylvania Mercury*, December 31, 1731.

⁸ *Pennsylvania Gazette*, October 6, 1737.

[To be continued]

THE STIMULATIVE AND CORRELATIVE VALUE OF A WELL-BALANCED COURSE IN COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

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I. ARGUMENT FOR THE TITLE "COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY"

The title "commerce and industry" is the name which the writer prefers should be given to the subject which is usually taught in secondary schools under the name of "commercial geography." Probably this title was adopted because during the eighteenth century in European schools patronized by the trading classes there was taught, under the name of "traders' geography," a body of information concerning things "useful for a merchant to know" with special reference to trade and transportation.

This name, "commercial geography," is not a fortunate one, since the information imparted, while it has a geographical bearing, is not chiefly geographical as its title suggests.

Professor Lyde, recognized as one of the great authorities on geography, says:

There is no essential difference whatever in the end in view, the principles involved, or the method to be used, between teaching geography from the economic point of view and teaching it from any other point of view. . . . And it is, therefore, a cause for much regret that the teaching of the science from this point of view ever came to be called the teaching of "commercial geography."

I think that no other single word ever did so much harm to the teaching of any subject, for it made writers write and—still worse—teachers teach as though all the importance lay, not in the end proposed, the underlying principles, or the practical method, but in the commercial products—which are always incidental and often absolutely immaterial.¹

Such in general is the attitude of those who are specialists in geography. They insist that the commercial elements in this

¹ L. W. Lyde, professor of economic geography, University College, London, *Teaching of Geography*, p. 19.

course be given a secondary position and that the geographic content be thorough and somewhat exhaustive. As commercial teachers, we believe that it would be of great value if all pupils doing commercial work could have a complete course in geography—mathematical, physical, political, and commercial. To those who are conversant with conditions which prevail in the making of a curriculum for a well-rounded commercial course, however, it is a well-known fact that the difficulty is not in deciding what subjects it is desirable to include, but rather in deciding which subjects must be omitted. Since all secondary-school pupils have had considerable instruction in mathematical, physical, and political geography, and since it is necessary for them to proceed with their education, it seems wise to progress into the study of commerce and the industries, giving them, however, a suggestive and rather complete review of those portions of geography which are essential as an introduction.

As far back as 1902, Edward D. Jones said: "The boundaries of the subject [commercial geography] are at present uncertain and even the precise objects to be attained in the study are under dispute."¹ The conditions thus described are to a considerable extent true of the teaching of the subject at the present time. Is it not probable that this indefiniteness would be eliminated if the title of the course were changed to that of commerce and industry? Such a change would be in accordance with the precedents as shown by the study of the curricula abroad. Although the name commercial geography sometimes appears, as translated, there also prevails a subject which is taught under several titles, the real purposes of which are clearly suggested. For instance, the commercial courses of the leading special schools abroad, as given by two authorities,² contain the following: "Materials of Commerce," "Technology Goods," "Technical Knowledge of Goods," "Knowledge of Merchandise," "Study of Merchandise," "Products," "Commercial Products," "Study of Products," "Knowledge of Products and Technology."

¹ Edward D. Jones, *Journal of Geography*, April, 1902, p. 151.

² Report of Edmund J. James to American Bankers' Association, in report of United States Commissioner of Education for 1895-96; and Cheeseman A. Herrick, *Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education*, Appendix.

The value of the present usage in the matter of the title, so far as secondary pupils are concerned, either is negative, since the title does not convey an intelligible idea of its content, or else positively militates against the course, if pupils have an antipathy to geography. The study of geography is not a popular subject with secondary-school pupils, as is evidenced by their great lack of knowledge in this subject and their frank statements regarding their lack of interest in it.

The title here suggested will make a strong appeal to those who are preparing for business vocations. A large proportion of those pupils who are doing commercial work in secondary schools are strongly inclined to feel that subjects which seem to have no direct bearing on their future occupations are not as valuable to them as subjects which, in their opinions, have such bearing.

It seems wise, more direct, and logical, in making a study of commerce and its causes, which the study of commercial geography undeniably is, to give the subject a title which has direct relation to the thing studied, rather than one which is indirect and merely deals with one of its causal elements. Although geographic facts underlie some of the present commercial conditions, several other forces are to be recognized. The title commerce and industry, therefore, is a broader, more suggestive, and more stimulative, name.

II. THE PLACE OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY IN THE SEQUENCE OF STUDIES

Having suggested a new title for this subject, it becomes necessary to show its proper position and relation in a properly adjusted commercial course. Quite clearly it belongs in the group which DeGarmo¹ refers to as the "economic group."

Owing to the known conditions of the first year in secondary schools, particularly the fact that a considerable number of pupils fail to go beyond this year and that those who do get into the second year usually make a serious attempt to graduate, it seems best to treat the first year in this group of studies as preliminary and foundational. When the interrelations of this group are considered

¹ Charles DeGarmo, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 160.

it will appear that this decision is not only conserving, but positively advantageous.

The subject for the first year should be elementary science. It should include a rather hasty and suggestive, but not an exhaustive, study of botany, zoölogy, chemistry, and physics, with special emphasis on matters relating to physical geography. This course should give a popular interpretation of, and a proper attitude toward, the numerous facts of science which have vital relation to commerce and the industries.

The second-year work in this sequence of studies should be the study of commerce and industry. As this course will be fully set forth later, it is necessary here only to prove that its proper place is in the second year. That this is the case is due to the necessity of pupils having a clear knowledge of the principles underlying physical geography, as well as an elementary knowledge of the sciences, especially of chemistry and physics, in order that they may have a clear comprehension of many of the processes used in the industries when the industries are under consideration. Having thus laid a foundation, it is wise to begin the study of commerce and industry, in order that the rather unique stimulative and correlative possibilities which the subject possesses may play their important part in the subsequent education of the pupils.

The subject in the third year of this group might well be the history of commerce. This study will furnish opportunity to humanize the body of knowledge being acquired in this sequence of subjects and to bring the students into more sympathetic and interested relations with the commercial aspects of the history of the past and the developments of the present, making them more truly intelligent and sympathetic citizens.

The capstone of this series of studies, given in the fourth year, should be economics. Here the pupils get a last view, so far as formal study is concerned, of that great body of facts, so interesting and so important, which are suggested by the thought of commerce and industry. Here commerce and the industries are studied from the standpoint of their effect upon society. The laws of production, distribution, exchange, and consumption are taken up, giving a comprehensive view of material things which affect human welfare, and which are world-wide in their influence.

III. THE PURPOSES AND CONTENT OF THE PROPOSED COURSE

The aims of this course and the results which it is expected will be obtained are as follows:

1. To furnish a causal explanation of the geographic, political, and economic facts of commerce and the industries.
2. To inculcate and develop the power of observation in matters which have a commercial bearing.
3. To furnish a large body of information relating to commerce and the industries of men, which not only will give general intelligence, but which may prove of great value in business life.
4. To enable students to become familiar with the various sources from which more complete, specific, and reliable facts may be secured when in their business careers such information may have vital relation to their business interests.
5. To enlarge the vocabularies of the pupils, thus broadening them for the related commercial subjects which lead directly to a vocation.

The following is an outline of the proposed course:

- a) The study of a good textbook.
- b) The keeping of home-work clipping-books.
- c) The writing of formal reports, with oral reports to the class on (1) an individual visit to a leading, representative manufacturing plant; (2) visits with the class to several transportation establishments; (3) a personal investigation by each pupil of the work of one of the bureaus of the national government.
- d) Attending talks and quizzes by the teacher on unfamiliar, non-local industries illustrated by lantern slides or by pictures used in a reflectoscope.
- e) Studying specimens of a carefully selected collection of the materials of commerce.
- f) Making graphs regarding statistical phases of industries.

If one is to follow the foregoing plan, it is necessary that the above elements of the course should be set forth in detail.

a) *The study of a good textbook.*—Such a book might be described as one which has introductory sections dealing with the three factors which explain and underlie commerce—the natural, or geographic; the human, or political; and the economic. These

introductory chapters should be followed by an extensive treatment of physical features, with some reference to geology, communication, transportation, localization and concentration of industry, government aid, and conservation of natural resources of the United States. Vegetable, animal, and mineral products should have thorough treatment as commodities of commerce, with particular reference to sources of raw materials, processes of manufacture, including references to by-products, substitutes and their effects, markets and routes, character of transportation, and influence of tariffs, if any. When the industry is of sufficient importance to permit, the localization of the industry and its chronological development should be explained. This would give a suggestive connection, which would not only stimulate interest but would become a means of assisting the memory.

Foreign countries need have but brief treatment, since the United States produces, in some measure, all but a few of the leading commodities of the world, and these few may be studied either with the countries which produce them or as imports of the United States.

This textbook work is important, as it furnishes a background and keeps students at work on systematized knowledge.

b) Probably no feature of the suggested course will yield so valuable a result to the pupils as that secured by keeping a neat, carefully planned home-work clipping-book. Here self-activity and the power of observation have free course. Thorndyke says: "In the last analysis, what scholars do, not what the teacher does, educates them; not what we give, but what they get, counts; only through their self-activity are they directly changed."¹ The plan suggested is to furnish each pupil with a good-sized, substantially covered blank book. On the left-hand pages the pupils should paste neatly, at the rate of one each week, good newspaper or magazine clippings which have a distinct commercial bearing. Each clipping will naturally be the most interesting and suggestive found in a given week. As each student is to write on the right-hand pages of this book full-page comments connected with the clippings, in his best handwriting, it will be necessary that considerable out-

¹ Edward Thorndyke, *Principles of Teaching*, p. 30.

side reading be done before these comments are undertaken. In this work the teacher has a wonderful opportunity to place before pupils that which will help to develop a spirit of research, of self-help, and an enthusiasm which will surprise instructors and prove a lasting stimulus to scholars. A collection of reference books is necessary for this work. This collection should include at least the following: the twelfth report of the Bureau of the Census (and the thirteenth as soon as available); a history of commerce, such as Day's or Webster's; a work on transportation, such as Johnson's; a work on economics, such as Bullock's or Burch and Nearing's; a work on the raw materials of commerce, such as Toothaker's; the annual reports of the secretaries of the nine departments of the national government; the reports of the Civil Service Commission, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the International Bureau of American Republics; the *World's Almanac*; and the *Statesman's Year Book*.

Experience has shown that a most valuable library can be gathered, also, by setting the pupils at work bringing in a magazine-article collection of writings which are related to commerce and the industries, government aid, invention, transportation, and allied topics. These can be lightly bound, labeled, and catalogued. If they are placed in folders within cloth-covered transfer boxes, they can be kept conveniently and compactly. Such a collection will be found to be superior to regular reference books in some respects, because they will be more up to date, more comprehensive, more interesting, and so lengthy as to make it impossible for pupils to copy them as comments on their clippings. It will be constantly growing, and obsolete articles may be withdrawn from the collection. A card index will prove of great convenience to teacher and pupils.

The tendencies and habits gained in the use of these clipping-books will be so lasting as to keep pupils interested in the progress of their country, its problems, its methods of advancement, its inventions, and thus they will be a veritable current-topics club unto themselves.

c) The first of the three formal reports suggested is designed to make pupils acquainted with local conditions as they exist in

manufacturing plants. These visits should be confined to the personal investigation of leading, distinctive, representative industries, if possible. Pupils should be given a month or more in which to investigate, visit, make notes, do supplementary reading, and write the reports. All pupils should be obliged to report orally, without notes, the results of their visits and investigations, so that their classmates may have a broad view of the whole field.

Through experience it has been learned that visits by whole classes rob the pupils of an opportunity to develop initiative, make the outlook of the class too circumscribed, as conditions at but few establishments will permit a class to see, hear, and properly understand what is occurring. Those who cannot hear will often, quite naturally, get into mischief and bring the school into dispute. If individual visits are arranged for, proprietors will give opportunity for thorough observation, supply complete information, and frequently ask for a copy of the reports. Pupils will be greatly aided in arranging visits if a carefully worded card from the teacher is in their possession when they are planning visits.

The second formal report should be based on visits to transportation companies. These visits should be arranged for by the teacher with the officials of large corporations, because they are difficult of access. As there are no intricate processes involved and explanation of the work by someone in authority is necessary, to avoid repetition these visits should be made by the class in charge of the teacher. The individual reports of the pupils on such visits will prove helpful as a criterion of their ability to observe and of their power of expression.

Visits should be made, if possible, to a sailing vessel, a freight steamer, a passenger steamer, a grain elevator, a freight station, a freight transfer plant, and a passenger station.

The third formal report should be connected with the work of the departments of the national government. This work gives a good opportunity for individual investigation. The nine departments and three special commissions furnish ample material for over forty separate topics, as will be seen from the *Congressional Directory*. This volume, published and revised each year, can be secured from the Government Printing Office. In it will be

found the name and address of the official in charge of each bureau, who will send printed matter or answer questions. The annual reports of the secretaries of the various departments may be secured upon request, and the work of the various bureaus has been fully set forth in pamphlets which are intended for public distribution.

d) A line of effort which is supplementary to these reports is that in which the teacher gives talks on unfamiliar non-local industries of the world, illustrated by lantern slides or by pictures used in a reflectoscope. These talks can be given to the whole class, or assembled classes, and should be followed by quizzes. This will demand the pupils' attention during the talks and lead to a retention of the essential facts.

Some suggested topics are: products of agriculture, rice and wheat; products of mines, iron and coal; products of fisheries, salmon and oyster; products of forests, lumber and rubber; products of manufacturing, silk and cotton; transportation, Erie and Panama canals.

This work has value chiefly because few pupils would have first-hand knowledge of more than two of these industries. The talks on such industries, if local, could be omitted.

e) The study of specimens of the materials of commerce which show the stages of progress from the raw materials to the finished product, including the by-products, is an important part of this course. Physical progress is from the concrete to the abstract. All first knowledge comes by way of the senses, and this fact shows the necessity for object teaching wherever it can be applied. James F. Chamberlain says: "One of the prime essentials in geography is that the pupils should actually see as much of what they study as possible."¹

Such a collection is rather difficult to secure, but is of great value when secured. This museum, classified on the basis of vegetable, animal, and mineral products, supplemented by window boxes, in which can be grown many of the plants of commerce, will prove a great stimulus to a class, in that it would gather within the reach of the class, or classes, objects which could otherwise be seen only by years of travel, and then not be appreciated.

¹ James F. Chamberlain, *Journal of Geography*, October, 1906, p. 374.

Through well-conceived letters to leading producers of commodities, and a well-chosen line of seeds, such a collection may be secured. The collection of the materials of commerce may be safely kept, easily classified, and conveniently exhibited, for the greater part, in eight-ounce bottles. In this form they are open to inspection, and may be permanently on exhibition in cases about the walls of the room in which the subject is taught, and passed to the members of the class for inspection, when advisable.

The plant collection, if properly arranged and kept in "self-watering" window boxes in southerly windows, may be watched in the germination of the seed, the development into a young plant, the flowering stage, and the maturing plant. While it is frankly admitted that there are great difficulties to be overcome in this sort of collection, particularly with tropical plants, because of the dry air of the schoolroom, enough has been accomplished to prove that eight or ten boxes, each containing about five different plants, can be successfully used. A box each of cereals, forage plants, leguminous plants, condiment-producing plants, oil-producing plants, vegetable plants, and miscellaneous plants, like tobacco, broom corn, etc., have been found practicable. Further experiments, especially with tea, coffee, cacao, etc., leave some questions of practicability unanswered.

f) The use of graphs and statistical tables in order to emphasize relative values is important and very easily accomplished, in these days of cheap base maps and numerous statistical volumes published by the national government. Such work is far more helpful, agreeable, and suggestive if pupils make their own graphs and tables from statistics, than if they are obliged to memorize statistics.

[To be continued]

REPORT OF THE TWENTY-SIXTH EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN RELATIONS WITH THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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In regard to the Twenty-sixth Educational Conference of the academies and high schools in relations with the University of Chicago, it is again, as in the case of each of the two Conferences latest held, proper to say that in the judgment of those who are in position to receive impressions and form opinions, the Conference of April 17 and 18, 1914, was more successful and significant than any that have preceded it. Its main features are (1) the departmental conferences and (2) the honor examinations of high-school students held on Friday afternoon, (3) the general session of Friday evening, (4) the annual contest in declamation and effective speaking under the direction of the Department of Public Speaking, (5) the general session on Saturday forenoon, and (6) the conference-luncheon given to school administrative officers Saturday noon following the morning session. To these features should be added the President's luncheon in the Reynolds Club to all visiting school officers and pupils Friday noon and the entertainment at supper of the visiting high-school officers at Lexington Hall, of visiting high-school boys at Hutchinson Commons, of visiting high-school girls at the lunch room of Emmons Blaine Hall, and the social hour from 5:00 to 6:00 on Friday under the direction of the Undergraduate Council of the University, providing for the entertainment of visiting high-school boys and girls.

The general subject of the departmental conferences was "Recent Progress and Present Conditions in the Teaching of High-School Subjects." This subject was discussed in departmental meetings held respectively in different lecture halls on the premises of the University. The departments in which these conferences were organized are the following: Biology, Earth Science, English, French, German, Greek and Latin, History, Home Economics, Manual Arts, Mathematics, Physical Education, Physics and

Chemistry, and Public Speaking. Attendance at these conferences was far in excess of that recorded at any of the previous annual Conferences. The largest lecture rooms available were in many cases too small to accommodate those wishing to attend.

The Friday evening session was devoted to the general consideration of The Higher Education for Women. President Mary E. Woolley, LL.D., Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass., discussed "The Practical Value of a Liberal Arts Training for Women"; Miss Abby L. Marlatt, head of the department of home economics, University of Wisconsin, "Education of the Woman for Larger Responsibility in Home Making." The subject of Dean Sarah Louise Arnold of Simmons College, Boston, was "Three Aspects of the Education of Women." On Saturday morning the general subject "The Definition, or Delimitation, of the High School" was discussed. Special regard was had to three phases of this general topic: (1) the present tendency to add to the high-school course two years of what is now undertaken in the Junior college; (2) the organization of the Junior high school underlying the last three years of the high-school work; (3) the tendency to compress into a smaller compass the period at present devoted to elementary and secondary education. The subjects were discussed by Dean Babcock of the University of Illinois; Principal Jesse B. Davis, Grand Rapids, Mich.; Principal M. H. Stuart, Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Ind.; and Principal W. J. Bogan, Lane Technical High School, Chicago.

Following are condensed reports of the departmental sessions of Friday afternoon:

Biology—

Chairmen (H. C. COWLES (Botany), University of Chicago.
(H. H. NEWMAN (Zoölogy), University of Chicago.
Secretary, H. B. SHINN, Carl Schurz High School.

Attendance, 85

The following topics were discussed:

1. "The Instruction of Young People in Respect to Sex,"¹ T. W. Galloway, James Millikin University, Decatur, Ill.
Discussion led by Miss Mary P. Blount, Cook County Normal School, and H. B. Shinn, Carl Schurz High School.

¹ Papers given at this conference will appear in full in *School Science*.

2. "Recent Advances in the Knowledge of Sex": (a) Experimental Biology of Sex, J. W. MacArthur; (b) Cytology of Sex, L. W. Sharp.

In speaking on the subject, "The Instruction of Young People in Respect to Sex," Dr. T. W. Galloway stated that sex instruction was too broad to be treated from the physician's standpoint alone; that for this reason teachers should give it; that they will be specially trained for this work within a few years. The subject-matter should include the family relation and a history of its evolution, with its successive phases, up to modern times. Sex instruction, both at home and in school, should be graded to the child's awakening curiosity and intelligence, and should be given in the grammar grades because home instruction is inadequate and the high school too late. Dr. Galloway closed by urging that all teachers try out some method.

Discussing the experimental biology of sex Mr. J. W. MacArthur gave certain notable data regarding the Mendelian effects of cross-breeding and the physiological effects of removal of one kind of sex organ and the substitution, by implantation, of another kind of organ. Thus is shown the profound effect of spermary and ovary upon the organism.

Cytology of sex seems to resolve itself into a numerical condition of chromosomes, according to Dr. L. W. Sharp. In the cases mentioned male somatic cells contain one less chromosome than female cells. The reductive divisions in maturation result in equal ova but unequal sperms. Fertilization by a minor sperm results in the minor form of nucleus in cleavage stages and hence the maleness of the embryo. In this way is explained parthenogenesis and the determination of sex.

In the general discussion Dr. Mary P. Blount spoke of the identity of interest between the home and the school, the utilization of laboratory study as a basis for moral instruction, and the advisability of demonstrating the mammalian reproductive system. The teaching of reproduction as a semi-mechanical phenomenon, of the function of chromosomes in fertilization and inheritance, and of the effects of breeding were central ideas in the zoological presentation to classes, as explained by Mr. Harold B. Shinn.

Miss Enid Hennessey, Dr. Yarrows, Mr. Eisenberger, Mr. Blount, and Principal F. L. Morse in question or answer brought out the following: (a) Physicians as such are not disqualified. (b) Sex hygiene as recently given in the Chicago high schools was successful. (c) Sex teaching in classes is not perverted by the pupils but is appreciated: it stops bad stories. (d) Sex teaching should extend over considerable time and be given in brief talks or lessons.

Earth Science—

Chairman, MRS. JANE PERRY COOK, Chicago Normal School.
Secretary, WELLINGTON D. JONES, University of Chicago.

Attendance, 100

The program of papers and formal discussion was as follows:

1. "The Subject-Matter for an Elementary Course in Economic and Commercial Geography."

- (1) Paper by Mary J. Lanier, University of Chicago.
- (2) Discussion led by Maud Butts, Hyde Park High School, and Jessie Lowe Smith, Highland Park High School.
- 2. "The Principles Which Should Govern the Choice of Material for Courses in Regional Geography."
 - (1) Paper by Zonia Baber, School of Education, University of Chicago.
 - (2) Discussion led by Meta Mayhardt, Evanston High School, and Marion Sykes, South Chicago High School.
- 3. "The Problem of 'Place-Geography.'"
 - (1) Paper by D. C. Ridgley, Illinois State Normal University.
 - (2) Discussion led by M. E. Branom, Minier High School, and Lewis Walker, Mahomet High School.
- 4. "Field Work in Geography; Its Character and Importance."
 - (1) Paper by Walter S. Tower, University of Chicago.
 - (2) Discussion led by R. C. Potter, J. Sterling Morton High School.

The brief informal discussions centered especially on the problem of "Place-Geography," with emphasis on the need of such teaching in all geography courses. A motion was passed advising the chairman to appoint a committee to select a list of important place-names which should be mastered by all high-school students of geography.

The papers by Miss Lanier, Mr. Ridgley, and Mr. Tower are to be sent to the *Journal of Geography* at Madison, Wis. Miss Baber spoke from the following outline:

The principles which should govern the choice of material for courses in regional geography:

I. The Needs of Society:

- 1. Relation to social environment:
 - Elimination of prejudices of race, class, sex, politics, religion, patriotism.
- 2. Relation to physical environment:
 - a) Forces responsible for landscape forms.
 - b) Controls responsible for kinds of vegetation.
 - c) Controls responsible for animal life.
 - d) Controls responsible for distribution of man.

II. The Needs of Youth:

- 1. Intellectual needs:
 - a) Wide scope for imagination—broad outlook.
 - b) Clear thinking.
- 2. Emotional needs:
 - a) Justice or fair play.
 - b) Altruism.
 - c) Hero worship.
- 3. Volition.

English—

Chairman, R. L. LYMAN, College of Education.

Secretary, ELIZABETH AVERY, Wendell Phillips High School.

Attendance, 128

The program planned by Mr. Crowe had for its subject a comprehensive review of the publications on literature and on composition. Each division of the subject was presented in two papers, the first in each case dealing with the material in the course and the second dealing with method, especially oral method.

Mr. C. L. Hooper of the Chicago Normal College presented the subject of Material in the course in literature—the selection of readings.

After a brief history of the present College Entrance Requirement lists for class and home reading he reported conclusions drawn from several investigations which have been made. The first one attempted to discover the preferences of the pupils. Out of a list of 41 books the first ten preferred were fiction, *A Tale of Two Cities*, *The Last of the Mohicans*, *Ivanhoe*, and *Hamlet* standing first. *Cranford* stood far down. The last four were *The Ancient Mariner*, *Sesame and Lilies*, *Essay on Burns*, and Emerson's *Essays*. Pupils prefer vivid and dramatic presentations with strong ethical import.

Another investigation made in five cities of New York sought the sources of interest. The strongest interest was found to be in plot, yet as the pupil grew older there was less interest in plot and more in character. The interest in moral was slight in the eighth grade, becoming marked in the second and third years of high school. Interest in style rose from 8 per cent in the eighth grade to 20 per cent in the third year. Current fiction preferred in the first year of high school gave place to classic fiction in the third year. The essay and poetry appeared to excite little interest except with a story.

The investigation which produced the Chicago Course of Study in English which separates the literature and composition resulted in making composition equal in importance to literature, in making possible a more accurate grading and more definite standards of promotion, and in securing continuity and concentration. The new course recommends untechnical method, freedom of choice, radiation of home reading, historical background with text as reference, oral reports including narration, choice of technical literature from any source accessible. The individual problem is recognized and provided for.

Mr. Theodore B. Hinckley of the University High School presented Method in the course in literature—the oral reading of literature: the study of verse. He treated the subject under the headings, "Who Is to Do the Reading?" "How Is It to Be Done?" and "How Treated?"

The fashion of the day is for oral expression. Little fault is found with method, but complaints are heard of inadequate training in reading. There is too much note-taking. Great literature can best be presented orally. Written words are dead symbols. Literature is an art, not a science, and must be treated through the voice. The teacher must be able to interpret the

printed page. Pupils also must read, but should not be asked to read at sight. The reading should be done in a simple, natural manner. This does not refer to the literature of fact, that which we read merely for information.

Dramatization is unnecessary, likely to be a hodgepodge, and takes too much time. Students can do their own dramatization mentally, emotionally. Why dramatize the Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales*?

Material on the study of verse may be found in "The Teaching of Poetry" by Harry Paul in the *English Journal*, in "Verse Making in Our Schools" in the *Pedagogical Seminary*, and in *Enjoyment of Poetry* by Max Eastman.

Miss Elizabeth Buchanan of the Hyde Park High School presented a paper on Material in the course in composition—subjects for themes and exercises. The paper was read by Miss Jane C. Tunnell of the same school.

Miss Buchanan called attention to certain experiments, one of which attempted to determine the variation of one teacher from another in the matter of grading work. Another tested the pupils (1) to secure information that will enable school authorities to formulate in objective terms the ends to be obtained in the teaching of writing and composition, (2) to measure efficiency of methods used to secure results, (3) to determine the factors which condition learning and teaching, (4) to furnish data that will make possible comparison of school with school, of teacher with teacher. Such a test would be of value in enabling teachers to treat the individual more intelligently. It is especially interesting in connection with determining what a pupil should be able to do at various stages of his progress. Miss Fish, in an article on "What Pupils Should Know When They Enter High School," said they should have the habit of reading intelligently and of expressing their ideas in clear and grammatical sentences. Less time should be given to elementary rhetoric and more to intelligent reading and clear expression.

The training of pupils to think should be left to the college, according to Frank Aydelotte of the University of Indiana. In high school they should be taught what they can learn. This view is not accepted by Dudley Miles. He says pupils can be led into a reflective attitude and can be taught to reject snap judgments. Another refutation occurs in the success of the experiment at Grand Rapids discussed under the title "Vocational Guidance through English Composition." The search for new material to be used in composition courses revealed nothing better than the teacher may find any day by seizing upon the life about him.

The subject of Method in the course in oral composition, with a list of articles consulted, was presented by Miss Alda M. Stephens of the Englewood High School. The material gathered was discussed under three subdivisions: pleas for oral composition, the definition or scope of the term "oral composition," and the methods of instruction employed.

Oral composition was found to be practical in that it made for clear, simple English, for distinct enunciation, correct pronunciation, for ease of body, and control of voice. Its scope includes according to the various definitions given

anything oral from the "proper recitation" to the formal argumentative oration and on to dramatics.

The method involves the recital of personal experiences with criticism by pupils of the work of other pupils, the choice of the best of this group to take part in a debate, oral discussion on topics not prepared beforehand, oral presentation of passages found in the literature class, conversation sustained for a given length of time.

A test of the value of oral composition was reported by the committee of the Illinois Association. Classes were organized in which half-time was to be given to oral composition and half to written, with student criticism. Other courses omitted the oral themes and student criticism. The results of the former were found to be more satisfactory in thought, in rhetorical and grammatical structure, and at least as good in the mechanical points of form. The students themselves showed improvement in thoroughness, in lessened artificiality, in improved conclusions, and in general vigor and enthusiasm.

French—

Chairman, E. B. BABCOCK, University of Chicago.

Secretary, A. COLEMAN, University of Chicago.

Attendance, 75

The conference of the French section was devoted largely to a consideration of method. The most considerable contributor was Mr. Arthur Bovée of the University High School, in a paper on certain aspects of the Direct Method, and in a specimen lesson in which he showed what a high-school class can be made to do after twenty-four weeks of such training. Mr. Bovée's chief contention was that it is quite possible to have the pupil understand the foreign tongue directly, and he laid much stress on the means by which the teacher may arrive at this. Chief of these are putting the words and even the concepts into action, and the free use of contrast and negation, building up from the known to the unknown. But the teacher need not stop here; to bear this out Mr. Bovée distributed an outline of the grammatical work his class had covered by means of systematized exercises: the use of the article and partitive construction, pronouns and adjectives, the gender and number of nouns, the conversational tenses of regular and the principal irregular verbs, reflexives, numerals, negation. In the lesson that followed, the pupils wrote difficult words from the sound and followed with ease the interpretation of a story heard for the first time.

In the comment that ensued it was pointed out that the pupils were evidently using English in their mental processes even if the vernacular were banished from their ears, but Mr. Bovée replied that, though this was unavoidable, they were at least having things presented to them in as French an atmosphere as possible.

The section did not express any opinion on the Direct Method as such, but manifested keen interest in Mr. Bovée's presentation.

Miss DeLagneau of Lewis Institute presented reviews of Fraser and Squair's *Shorter French Course* and of Giese's *Graded French Method*. The former had been found satisfactory in a class for teachers. The phonetic introduction is more carefully worked out than in the old book and the lessons in phonetic script are helpful in the classroom drill. It is to be regretted, however, that phonetic equivalents are no longer given in the main vocabulary. Professor Giese in his book presents a series of carefully devised exercises for translation and composition in which vocabulary and grammatical principles are driven home by constant repetition and reworking of the same material, which will also furnish the competent teacher with ample matter for oral practice. Defects in the book are the difficulty of the earlier lessons and the flippant tone adopted by the author in his exercises.

Miss Williams of Joliet Township High School spoke briefly of David's *Ches Nous*. She had found it the most interesting and most thoroughly French of readers, but thought it perhaps too difficult for first-year work.

German—

Chairman, CHARLES GOETTSCHE, University of Chicago.

Secretary, JOHN C. WEIGEL, University of Chicago.

Attendance, 80

The formal program, dealing with the recent progress and present conditions in the teaching of German, divided itself as follows:

1. "Report on the Recent Bulletins on the Teaching of German in Secondary Schools," Arthur S. Merrill, Francis W. Parker School.
2. "Review of Articles on First- and Second-Year German," Gladys M. Graham, Carl Schurz High School.
3. "The New Trend in Recent Textbooks," Lydia M. Schmidt, University High School.

1. Mr. Merrill's paper was an outline of the *revised* version of a report by the Committee on Modern Languages, appointed by the National Education Association in connection with other committees of a similar nature, for the purpose of studying the "reorganization of secondary education." The report in full is to be published later by the Bureau of Education. This report goes into specific details as to (a) aims, (b) method, (c) materials, (d) details of procedure, (e) texts to be used in modern-language instruction. In this connection, Mr. Merrill also called attention to the very excellent bibliography of American magazine articles on the teaching of modern languages which is to be found in Professor C. H. Handschin's valuable monograph, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States* (published by the U.S. Bureau of Education, 1913, as *Bulletin No. 3*).

2. Two papers representing recent thought in modern-language instruction were reviewed by Miss Graham. The first of these, which appeared in the *School Review* for January, 1913, and was written by W. R. Price, modern-language inspector of the state of New York, deals with "The Second Year of a

Modern Language." Mr. Price believes that the aim of our modern-language teaching should be the acquirement of a good reading rather than a speaking knowledge of the language. He insists, however, that oral drill is absolutely necessary toward obtaining a certain *Sprachgefühl* of such great importance in reading. In the second year of the high school, the foreign language should be the language of the classroom. Translation should be done outside of class. All class work should take the form of questions and answers on the basis of the text; here should be the time for drill, for explaining the coming lesson. Conversation should not be disconnected, but should be based upon the text read.

The second article, entitled "Beobachtungen auf dem Gebiete des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts," by Baxter-Collins in *Monatshefte für deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik* for October, 1909, emphasizes the historical evolution of the teaching of modern languages in the secondary school with reference to the former domination of college instructors writing textbooks for the lower schools. The type of textbook best fitted for the secondary and lower schools, Mr. Collins avers, must evolve from the concrete experience of teachers in these schools themselves. Moreover, says he, we attempt too much grammar in the first year. The syllabus prepared by last year's Conference is in line with such experience. As regards the textbooks, Miss Schmidt's paper on the trend of pedagogy as reflected in recent books brought to light the first traces of realizing the prophecy Mr. Baxter-Collins made several years ago.

3. Miss Schmidt introduced her paper by pointing out the general criticism aimed at modern-language teaching—the lack of organization. Both the Direct Method and a modified form of the Direct Method have been offered as a remedy for these ills, but only recently has the teaching body responded to the newer ideas as presented in these progressive methods. Within a period of two years, however, there have appeared texts which incorporate the ideas of those in sympathy with the supporters of the Direct Method. Among these books which have appeared in rather rapid succession in response to the progressive ideas are the following divisions referring respectively to the three years:

(a) Gronow, *Jung Deutschland* (Ginn); Gohdes and Buschek, *Sprach- und Lesebuch* (Holt); Baxter-Collins, *First Year of German* (Macmillan).

(b) Schrakamp, *Deutsche Heimat* (A.B.C.); Prokosch, *Deutsches Lese- und Übungsbuch* (Holt); Holzworth, *Gruss aus Deutschland* (Heath); Composition—Boezinger, *Mündliche und Schriftliche Übungen* (Holt); the Charles E. Merrill Co. edition of *Immensee, Garmelshausen, and Kindertränen*.

(c) Schrakamp, *Ernstes und Heitres* (A.B.C.); Spanhoofd, *Aus Vergangener Zeit* (A.B.C.).

From these books Miss Schmidt indicated the direction modern-language instruction in the secondary school will take in the immediate future, viz., an application of a modified Direct Method.

At the close of the papers, there was a general discussion of the syllabus prepared at the last annual Conference and printed in the *School Review* later.

It was directed that a committee of five be appointed by the chair to take the matter into further consideration with a view to making a report at next year's Conference.

Greek and Latin—

Chairman, GEORGE H. ROCKWOOD, Austin High School.

Secretary, MRS. ANNE HERSMAN, Hyde Park High School.

Attendance, 76

1. "Report of the Committee on the Minimum Amount of Form and Syntax Work in Connection with High-School Latin," Miss Frances Sabin, Oak Park High School, chairman.

Copies of the outline recommended by the committee were distributed. Miss Sabin commented on the work of the committee and the difficulties encountered by the teacher. Professor W. G. Hale, University of Chicago, had distributed copies of a substitute outline, and also of the *Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature*. He explained his objections to the committee's outline. Discussion.

Miss Elizabeth Faulkner, principal of the Faulkner School, moved that a committee be appointed by the chair to arrange a vocabulary according to meaning and derivation, to be used in each high-school year, the committee to report at the next Conference. Motion carried.

2. "Report on Recent Publications of Interest to Teachers of Greek and Latin."

List distributed.

Mr. H. F. Scott, University High School, commented on Latin books; Professor R. J. Bonner, University of Chicago, on Greek books. Mr. Bonner moved that a committee be appointed by the chair on predigested or simplified texts and alternate texts, the committee to report at the next meeting of the Conference. Motion carried.

The chair appointed a committee on committees: Mr. Johnson of Lane Technical High School, chairman; Professors Hall, Miller, and Bonner of the University of Chicago.

History—

Chairman, MARCUS W. JERNEGAN, University of Chicago.

Secretary, ARTHUR F. BARNARD, University of Chicago.

Attendance, 100

The subject for discussion was the preliminary report of the Committee on "Social Studies" in the Secondary School. This committee is one of the National Education Association subcommittees on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The report is to be found in *Bulletin No. 41* for 1913 of the Bureau of Education. It is summarized in the *History Teacher's Magazine* for December, 1913.

Mr. Tryon of the College of Education summarized the report of the committee. The committee has a strong sociological bias as is indicated in

its name, purpose, and in the membership of the committee. Although representative in a professional sense, the committee is not so geographically, as a clear majority are from the North Atlantic states. In the five-year course outlined by the committee the first year is to be devoted to community civics and to a survey of vocations and the last year to economics and to civic theory and practice. Out of five units the committee devotes three to history. This is to be socialized, the aim being the cultivation of a spirit of good citizenship. Toward this end it is to be studied topically rather than chronologically and the past is to be subordinated to the present. Thus the first unit is to cover the whole of recorded history to the year 1700 A.D. The second unit is modern European history from 1700 A.D., and the third, American history. In each of these latter courses again the emphasis is on present-day conditions and problems. The report was discussed from the standpoint of the university by Professor McLaughlin of the University of Chicago. He referred to his diffidence in criticizing the work of the committee, as his experience on such committees had given him a keen sense of the difficulty of the task and had possibly fixed his viewpoint. He stated that he agreed with the committee that the time for dictating for the high schools is past. The course should be arranged to develop boys and girls. The emphasis on modern history is inevitable. The time reduction makes it very difficult to cover the whole field of history. Must ancient history be eliminated? Whatever plan of excision be adopted, quality and not quantity of information should be the aim. The interest and enthusiasm of the student must be aroused and a love of reading and the knack of finding things in books cultivated. Above all, the aim should be always the cultivation of the attitude of historical-mindedness. The speaker warned of the danger in constantly unsettling the curriculum. The present necessity is not in determining order of studies but learning how to teach. As great danger exists in the overemphasis on the study of present conditions. The value of culture, of what is permanent in the civilization of the past, cannot be minimized. The educational value of history must not be subordinated to knowledge of passing things.

The report was considered from the standpoint of the high school by Mr. Bobbitt of the Oak Park High School. From his own experience with such a course he criticized the community civics of the first year on the ground that the subject was covered in the grades. He made no objection to the history courses as outlined, but raised a warning against distorting history to suit the views of any group. The courses laid down for the fifth year were criticized. Economics is too theoretical and abstract for the high school. A substitute might be found in industrial history. The course in civic theory is too advanced in its nature and the books recommended are above the level of the high-school pupil.

The discussion was opened by Mr. Huth of the University of Chicago. He looked upon the report as proceeding from a desire to introduce new

subjects and expel old subjects—as almost socialistic in its trend and spirit. The first unit of history is frankly impossible. The knowledge the high-school graduate has of history is already too vague. What is needed is not a change of perspective in history, but a more thorough study of the simpler periods. Mr. Huth made a strong plea for the retention of ancient history on the ground that the ancient institutions were simpler than the modern, that the currents of history were not so complex, that we have abundance of concrete material for illustration, and that the ancient culture has an imperishable value as a stimulus to the mind of man.

After brief general discussion a motion was passed disapproving the report of the committee.

Home Economics—

Chairman, DEAN MARION TALBOT, University of Chicago.

Secretary, AGNES K. HANNA, University of Chicago.

Attendance, 125

Miss Anna Green of the DeKalb High School discussed the general method of values of *Food and Sanitation*, a new high-school text by Mildred Wigley and Mrs. Foster. This book is not yet in print, but was used in manuscript form by Miss Green. The particular problem discussed in this book is the introduction of home economics from an experimental standpoint. Miss Green explained that one of its greatest values was in being eminently practical, as it had been founded on actual class experience. Sanitation is taken up from a study of the municipal problem.

Miss Wheeler of the University of Missouri discussed the subject of nutrition in the high schools. She emphasized the difficulty of the introduction of nutrition in a course because of the congestion of most high-school home-economics courses, and of the further difficulty of handling in an elementary way this rather advanced subject. She advised the introduction of work in nutrition by treating it incidentally in connection with individual foods rather than as a special subject. She also suggested that much valuable work could be done by correlating the work in nutrition with other science work in the course. Miss Wheeler discussed some of the well-known textbooks on nutrition and advised that material be derived from various sources rather than from one particular textbook.

Miss Feeney of the School of Education presented a summary of recent bulletin material received from the Agricultural Department and State Experiment Stations. She also suggested that this type of printed material be used when textbooks are not available.

Miss Nesbitt, visiting dietitian of the Juvenile Court, outlined a study of standard of living which she has been making as the result of investigations of 600 families. This material is to be published by the *Journal of Home Economics*.

Miss Church of the Lucy Flower Technical High School presented the work in house decoration and costume design as given in the Lucy Flower

Technical High School. Miss Church gave a list of available magazine articles. She advised the approach to house decoration from the practical basis of a concrete house plan and included in her work the general architecture and color problems and general design in house furnishings and textiles. In costume design, Miss Church advocates the value of work in clay modeling as a beginning, to give a sense of form. Here again Miss Church uses actual work with textures in planning costumes instead of merely paper and pencil representation.

Miss Nancy Gladish of the Austin High School discussed a recent article in the *Journal of Home Economics* by Mary E. Parker. The work of the technical high school is not in most cases strictly vocational. The distinction between vocational work and general training, such as is usually given in many of the high schools, has in most cases not been drawn and Miss Gladish explained how her experience in high-school work brought out this same point—that the type of work which gives girls training in household art does not meet the problem of the trade.

Miss Gladish's paper was followed by a discussion on the distinction between trade and general high-school training, led by Miss Wells of the Lucy Flower Technical High School. Miss Wells presented the trade experience of the eight girls who had graduated from the two-year vocational course at the Lucy Flower High School.

Miss Breckinridge of the University of Chicago discussed the work of Miss Nesbitt and suggested a further study of the standard of living that had been made in the Stockyards district by Mr. Kennedy. Miss Breckinridge made a plea for the introduction of schools for the needle trades in Chicago and cited the experiments being tried at the University Settlement and Hull House. Miss Breckinridge outlined the great need of training for the girls of fourteen years of age, and suggested the value of defining the minimum training which would fit these girls for effective wage earning.

[To be continued]

INVESTIGATION OF STUDY HABITS OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

F. M. GILES
DeKalb Township High School

Teaching pupils how to study is one of the pressing problems of teaching. A very little observation of students at work shows that they are working, in many cases, to little advantage, and by "rule-of-thumb" methods. What is needed is some "scientific management" as a result of which we could give students the best methods of work. Could we instal efficient methods of study, we could no doubt lessen materially our percentage of failure and elimination from school. The investigation given herewith was undertaken with the idea of finding out some facts in regard to the habits and methods of study of high-school students. It was thought that if our teachers knew more concretely how their pupils were studying, they would be able to use this knowledge in bringing about better methods of study. It must be admitted, of course, that teachers are somewhat at sea themselves as to the best method of study. They, too, have done their studying by an intuitive method, and they are not able to make it objective for the use of others. It is evident, then, that much work is needed before we can help students effectively.

This investigation is open, of course, to the criticism of the questionnaire method. One must make allowance for the subjective nature of the answers and for questions of mere opinion. For instance, in question 12, students may have been influenced by the question to give the desired answer. However, even here it is evident that about one-eighth of the students have no idea of study except the attempt to absorb bodily the whole subject. Indeed, it has been the experience of the writer in working with students who fail, that a great many of them try to remember everything in the lesson regardless of value or relative importance. Again in question 8, as to the length of time spent on the lessons, the answers undoubtedly allow more rather than less than the time

usually spent. If one may assume, however, that all statements are increased proportionately, it is evident that certain lessons take much more time than others.

Some brief comments will serve to show the points of the study. For instance, the first question shows that 25 per cent of the students have no definite time for study. Almost 50 per cent have no separate room for study. The value of the work done in such conditions is open to question. Again, 75 per cent state that they use evenings for study. This, in itself, would be an argument against mid-week entertainments.

Question 4 aims to find out whether any particular type of lesson was studied at home. In general it would seem that the student takes his hardest lessons home. It is interesting to note also that the students, in a ratio of two to one, prefer to study at school as compared to studying at home. This would indicate probably that better study conditions are obtained at school.

In questions 5 and 6 we had in mind to find out whether any large percentage of students were depending upon other students, parents, or teachers for outside help. The figures show that in the first year outsiders help somewhat, but that such help decreases until the senior year, when the students are working practically on their own responsibility. The same thing is evident in regard to getting help from teachers. This might be explained from the fact that those who need help have been eliminated from the high-school course.

In question 8 the average spent on the subjects by the various years are interesting. The figures are nearly equal for all years except the second. Here a noticeable difference exists in the general average. It is in this year that so many students are eliminated from school. It would be interesting to know if there was any connection between these two facts.

Question 9 may need a word of explanation. It is purposed in this question to find out whether the pupils use any means of recitation with their study. It is well known, of course, that recitation thus used greatly helps retention and permanency of the matter studied.¹ The answers show that a large proportion of the students are using some means of recitation for fixing the material

¹ Cf. Abbott, *Psychological Review*, Monograph Supplement, 1909.

in mind, but it is equally evident that from 15 to 20 per cent apparently have no particular method of study. It is for these students that our study helps are needed.

STATISTICS OF STUDY BY YEARS. 1913

Based on: Fourth year, 26; third year, 68; second year, 85; first year, 79.

1. a) Do you have each day a definite time for study at home?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	24	59	56	56	195
No.....	2	9	29	24	64

b) When is it?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Morning.....	1	6	2	6	15
Afternoon.....	0	2	3	8	13
Evening.....	23	57	55	56	198

2. Do you have a separate room for study?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	16	36	44	33	129
No.....	10	33	41	43	127

3. a) Do you study in a room where other people are talking?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	7	36	47	30	120
No.....	8	30	37	40	115
Sometimes.....	9	0	0	7	16

b) Does this bother you?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	14	36	22	19	91
No.....	10	24	49	48	131

4. a) Are these your hardest lessons or your easiest?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Hardest.....	23	45	56	55	179
Easiest.....	2	19	10	14	45
Medium.....	0	5	19	3	27

b) Would you rather study at home or at school?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Home.....	9	19	24	24	76
School.....	12	43	54	52	161
No choice.....	5	7	7	3	22

5. Do you, as a rule, study with someone else?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	1	3	7	10	21
No.....	25	64	78	68	235

6. a) Do you get help in studying your lessons?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	0	17	17	29	63
No.....	25	51	64	50	190

b) From parents?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	0	9	9	19	37
No.....	0	51	70	48	169

c) From friends?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	0	12	8	7	27
No.....	0	46	68	55	169

d) Do you get help from your teachers?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	13	40	56	66	175
No.....	12	22	23	8	65

e) How often?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Often.....	0	0	17	23	40
Very seldom.....	11	38	36	28	113

7. How long do you study at a time?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Thirty minutes or less..	10	20	28	26	84
One hour.....	6	31	32	34	103
Longer than 1 hour.....	10	14	19	19	62

8. How long, on an average, do you spend on a lesson in the subjects you are carrying? Give name of study and time in space below.

FOURTH YEAR			THIRD YEAR		
Subject	No.	Average	Subject	No.	Average
English.....	23	37.1 min.	English.....	64	40.4 min.
Chemistry.....	19	51	German.....	48	39.5
History.....	18	46.6	History.....	51	40.7
Domestic Science..	5	25	Physics.....	25	44.2
German.....	15	43.6	Commercial		
Agriculture.....	3	30	Geography...	3	26.6
Review Mathe-			Chemistry.....	11	47.7
matics.....	1	45	Agriculture.....	5	40
Economics.....	5	33	Geometry.....	7	36.4
Physics.....	1	45	Cooking.....	7	27.1
Business English..	1	30	Latin.....	11	39
			Economics.....	7	41.4
			Stenography....	1	35
General average.....		38.6 min.	General average.....		38.2 min.

SECOND YEAR			FIRST YEAR		
Subject	No.	Average	Subject	No.	Average
German.....	55	39.1 min.	Arithmetic.....	19	37.8 min.
Geometry.....	43	51.7	Algebra.....	57	39.7
History.....	55	50.5	English.....	64	36.6
English.....	7	40.9	Latin.....	29	43.6
Sewing.....	2	37	Physiology.....	36	48.4
Agriculture.....	13	43.4	Science.....	10	27
Algebra.....	10	32	Bookkeeping....	6	47.5
Latin.....	39	44.6	Cooking.....	5	43
Commercial			Sewing.....	2	37
Geography....	11	36.3			
Arithmetic.....	11	30			
Business English..	13	38			
Physics.....	2	37			
Stenography.....	4	37.5			
Cooking.....	6	25.8			
General average.....		31.7 min.	General average.....		40 min.

g. a) How do you study? Do you write out notes on your lessons?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	15	30	35	33	113
No.....	10	39	51	39	139

b) Do you write out translations?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	1	16	50	24	91
No.....	25	53	37	38	153

c) Do you outline your lessons?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	13	35	47	23	118
No.....	12	31	37	49	129

d) Do you underscore the most important points in the text?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	21	63	58	50	192
No.....	4	6	27	23	60

e) Do you read your lessons out loud?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	7	18	24	22	71
No.....	19	48	62	52	181

f) Do you say your lessons to someone?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	3	10	13	17	43
No.....	23	57	69	54	203

g) Do you close your book and repeat your lesson to yourself?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	17	44	51	64	177
No.....	8	25	33	12	78

h) Do you use any other plan?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	4	9	21	15	49
No.....	4	59	62	47	168

10. Which of these things do you find most helpful?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
a) Writing notes.....	3	3	6	7	19
b) Writing translations..	0	0	1	0	1
c) Outlining.....	6	11	21	3	41
d) Underscoring.....	10	10	9	2	31
e) Reading aloud.....	1	3	1	2	7
f) Reciting to someone..	1	1	5	1	8
g) Closing book.....	5	21	18	19	63
h) Other plan.....	0	7	13	6	26

11. Do you review earlier lessons when not asked to do so by the teacher?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes*.....	21	45	43	45	154
No.....	4	22	41	19	86

* Usually just before a test.

12. In studying history, science, English literature, etc., do you try to pick out the most important points in a lesson and master them?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	24	53	68	63	208
No.....	1	8	17	11	37

Or do you try to remember everything in the lesson?

	Fourth Year	Third Year	Second Year	First Year	
Yes.....	1	8	17	11	37
No.....	24	53	68	63	208

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

THE SURVEY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

The University of Wisconsin is at the present time undergoing a unique experience. It is being surveyed by the State Board of Public Affairs. The State Board of Public Affairs is a commission which was created some years ago for the purpose of studying the finances of the state and equalizing, in some measure, the financial burdens imposed upon the state treasury by different public organizations.

The academic world looks upon Wisconsin as the most successful institution in the United States in contributing to public, civic, and political life. Naturally, the activities of the university in public affairs have created strong, partisan views with regard to its efforts to influence state legislation and state distribution of funds. The superintendent of public education in the state, who is an *ex-officio* member of the Board of Regents, has made a persistent campaign of attack upon university policies. These various critical influences have finally expressed themselves in the survey which is now under way. The active agents of the survey are Mr. William Allen, known for his former connection with the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City, and Mr. Farmer, who has been associated with Mr. Allen in a number of public surveys. Mr. Allen has exhibited a good deal of vigor in instituting and carrying on surveys of various sorts. The institution with which he was connected was once before employed by the Wisconsin Board of Public Affairs in a survey of the rural schools of the state of Wisconsin. His connection with the New York City survey has also been a subject of general knowledge, especially through his own public utterances on the matter.

One of the public documents that has appeared up to this time as a part of the survey is a pamphlet of questions sent to every member of the teaching staff of the university. Including the blank pages on which the members of the university faculty are to write their answers, this pamphlet is a forty-seven page document of large letter-head size. It contains about one hundred questions. Many of these questions are subdivided into six or seven parts. Casual inspection would lead one to believe that at least a full day's work is involved in making out the answers to the questions. Many of the questions are of a type to stimulate wholesome thinking about university organization. Many of the

questions will be very difficult, if not impossible, to answer. For example, it is asked, "What benefit has the answerer gained from the faculty meetings?" Another interesting general question which will probably be confusing to most of the members of the faculty is the following: "State specifically in what way your professional efficiency has been affected and how you have been helped in dealing with students, in methods of instruction, and subject-matter by (a) the president, (b) the dean, (c) the chairman, (d) the instructors in charge, (e) university scientific societies, (f) other official factors."

The writer is very clear in his own mind that it would be quite impossible for him to give any definite statement of the influence of his associates on the courses which he gives. The difficulty with a question of this sort is that it is more likely to bring out trivial and adverse criticisms than to get at the real essential relations of an institution, especially when the answers are to be tabulated and discussed by one whose acquaintance with university life is merely that of a student and a professional inquirer.

Other questions of the same type appear. For example, the question is raised how often members of the faculty have consulted with the president. This question would seem to be based on the assumption that the president of a university is acquainted in detail with the best methods of procedure in all of the different departments. However, the survey will undoubtedly be of service to universities and to the public.

The University of Wisconsin has, more than any of the other public institutions of its type, made an effort to get in contact with the people of the state. It is natural that it should be one of the first to be attacked by critics of university organization. A democratic community always has some difficulty in understanding its own institutions. The University of Wisconsin will make a large contribution if it can train the officials of the state of Wisconsin to understand something of its spirit and internal operations. There will be temporary inconveniences in fulfilling this mission. One hears, for example, at Madison of student examinations for the higher degrees which are invaded by the inquirers. Students are asked questions with regard to the value of different courses, and when they are reluctant to make answers it is said that the inquirers threaten to subpoena these students and make them answer questions as the state's witnesses. This sort of a device employed in an academic examination certainly has its advantages. It might be well to empower faculties of universities as official servants of the commonwealth to subpoena students for various purposes. Why not go a step farther

and allow universities to subpoena citizens? It would be interesting, for example, to authorize the members of the faculty whose research work is being critically scrutinized to draw in witnesses who could support the case in behalf of research.

It is understood that some of the inquirers in this case are very doubtful about the value of studies of ancient history and of the remoter fields of science. This doubt is natural enough on the part of those whose knowledge of such subjects is slight, and they undoubtedly represent a very important fraction of the American people. Germany does not have to persuade the whole body of its population of the value of research. Research progresses, therefore, in an imperial country with a good deal more rapidity than in our own country. It will be more difficult to teach the whole body of American sovereigns that research is worth while, but the University of Wisconsin is doing yeoman service in this direction and everyone connected with academic life will be hopeful as to the outcome.

It is rumored at Wisconsin that the department of education is receiving special attention from Mr. Allen and his co-workers and is likely to be criticized, especially for its experimental school. The value of the opinion which these gentlemen form of the work of the department of education will be doubted by many who know of their activities in New York and contrast the inquirers with the character and worth of the officers connected with the department of education. The state of Wisconsin has already expressed its confidence in the work of this department by giving a magnificent building for a laboratory school. If the surveyors are not able to understand the value of the laboratory school, the rest of the educational world will be able to judge the surveyors by this finding. It would be well for the state of Wisconsin to recognize that the earlier pronouncements of the gentlemen who are conspicuous in this survey on the Wisconsin rural schools are about as clear evidence that they are not competent to discuss school matters as could easily be produced. Anyone who is under the necessity of admitting connection with authorship of the Wisconsin Rural School Survey should at least provide himself with a rigorous course of training and experience before he attempts to comment again before an intelligent educational public on school matters. At the same time he furnishes a capital illustration of the difficulties encountered by experimental undertakings and scientific studies of every type. No one who is really interested in the development of education can fail to be thankful, therefore, that the opportunity presents itself of meeting early and in definite

form some of the types of opposition to scientific work which might otherwise grow in the uncertain background of uninformed opinion.

C. H. J.

THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The report presented to the National Education Association by its committee on Vocational Education and Vocational Guidance invites constructive criticism. It is in response to this general invitation that the following editorial comments are made.

This committee was appointed to report to the Association "concerning vocational education and vocational guidance," and it decided to address itself to the phase of the question indicated by the title of the report, "Proposed Terminology." It is perhaps unwarranted to question the wisdom of the committee in determining that its greatest contribution could be made by formulating "certain definitions as to terms," but we cannot help feeling that something more constructive might have been undertaken in view of the committee's exceptional opportunity.

We recognize the need of a clear understanding of the terms used to define different types of vocational schools and believe that agreement as to the meaning of these terms would be of material benefit, but we believe that the formulating of definitions should follow, rather than precede, the creation of the various types, and that, when finally evolved, the definitions should actually describe the types, not seek to pre-determine future developments.

All over the country has been heard the demand that education be brought into more immediate and intimate relations with the humbler occupations which form such a large part of the common experiences of everyday life. In the several sections of the country these experiences are widely different, and this demand is being met in a variety of ways. It is highly desirable that experimentation go on for some time without the stultifying effect of trying to adjust practice in one part of the country to a principle which has been developed under the peculiar conditions obtaining in another section. The report frankly states:

The suggestions made below as to the meaning and use of terms are based in part upon the theory and practice of vocational education in Massachusetts, more particularly as that has been influenced by the State Board of Education. The Board, being required by law to supervise various forms of vocational education, has found it necessary to evolve, and use consistently, a somewhat definite terminology.

We believe that the definitions given by the committee, instead of following the precedent of Massachusetts, where experimentation has been under way since 1906, ought to have been such as to stimulate initiative in all sections of the country by emphasizing the fundamental need of vocational education and of setting forth with great clearness the principles governing the efforts which are being made to meet those needs. Our criticism, therefore, is not of the definitions themselves so much as of the policy of attempting, by definitions, to standardize practices which are still in the early experimental stages.

Some of the definitions, however, appear to be given either in ignorance of, or with disregard for, the facts, as, for example, the definitions of "pre-vocational training." A number of cities have made use of this term, "pre-vocational," in their school legislation and have employed it with a considerable degree of uniformity. What is being done in these cities bears little resemblance to the "examples" or to the "definition" given in the report. The definition as given (p. 44) follows: "Pre-vocational training is a conscious attempt on the part of society to equip an individual to make an intelligent choice of occupation, by giving him an opportunity to undergo a series of typical practical experiences."

While the vocational guidance feature of pre-vocational work has been recognized, it has been of relatively little importance as compared with its function of motivating education for those of about fourteen years of age who have nearly decided to leave school for occupational life. An illustration taken from the Louisville, Kentucky, public schools is illuminating. The following quotations are from a document of the school.

They agreed that pre-vocational training required for their purpose could be taught by means of *any* trade that could be practically handled in the school-room.

Printing and cabinet-making were the trades chosen for the Louisville pre-vocational class. . . .

They [members of the class] were, therefore, carefully selected from among children who had applied for permits to work, or who would positively leave school within a year.

No child was permitted to enter this class if there was any intimation upon the part of the parents that further schooling was considered for the child.

These statements would be accepted by several other cities as indicative of the purpose of their "pre-vocational" work. It will be noted that the work described in the Louisville document will hardly "equip an individual to make an intelligent choice of occupation, by giving him

an opportunity to undergo a series of typical practical experiences." So far as there was any chance for selection it was made prior to entering the class.

A pre-legal course in college is not given to enable a student to choose between medicine, theology, and law, but is intended to give a better foundation for a subsequent legal training than some other academic course. The choice has been made already. In the same way the pre-vocational work of which we are speaking gives a better preparation for early vocational life than the regular work of grades seven and eight. The "choice" between schooling and work has been made in favor of the latter, and pre-vocational work is the work which, under the circumstances, gives the best immediate foundation for occupational experience.

Perhaps "pre-vocational" *ought* to mean what the committee says it does, but where the term has been used in school legislation it has designated a type of work which coincides quite closely with the example cited above and therefore differs materially from the committee's definition.

Another difficulty which arises from the formulation of such limiting definitions as those given by the committee is that the definitions themselves must be still further interpreted before they can be carried over into the realm of actual practice. A case in point is the experience of Indiana, where the statute, founded on the Massachusetts law, defines the different types of vocational schools, and the State Board of Education is obliged to interpret these definitions. The law states:

"Evening class" in industrial, agricultural, or domestic-science school or department shall mean a class giving such training as can be taken by persons already employed during the working-day, and which in order to be called vocational must in its instruction deal with the subject-matter of the day employment; but evening classes in domestic science relating to the home shall be open to all women over seventeen who are employed in any capacity during the day.

The State Board of Education says:

... the controlling purpose of an evening class in a state-aided vocational school must be "to fit the worker for more profitable employment in the occupation in which he is actually engaged." An evening school which provides instruction for wage-earners, designed to teach them another more remunerative occupation or trade or *one permitting a higher degree of skill, is not eligible for state aid.*

The law provides that "industrial education shall mean that form of vocational education which fits for the trades, crafts, and wage-earning pursuits,

including the occupation of girls and women carried on in stores, workshops, and other establishments"; also that "industrial, agricultural, or domestic science school or department shall mean an organization of courses, pupils, and teachers designed to give either industrial, agricultural, or domestic science education as *herein defined*, under a separate director or head."

Interpreting this law, the State Board of Education says:

In these schools a close relation must be maintained between theory and practice. There will be *no general departments* of arts or science, *no systematic work* in mathematics or drawing. . . . This being the final professional school for the industrial worker, the pupil's attendance at the school *should be cut as short* as may be consistent with a thorough training for the occupation or trade to be learned. . . . The shopwork must be conducted on a *productive* or commercial basis. . . .

It should be clear that schools organized on the above lines would be possible only under conditions which obtain in congested industrial communities. In the larger part of the country such definitions and interpretations would impede rather than impel progress in vocational education.

Fortunately the committee says:

Because of the unsettled condition of vocational education the committee is not yet prepared to recommend the adoption of the appended terminology by the National Education Association. It submits it rather as a provisional report in order to pave the way for a more adequate examination and discussion of the whole question. It is expected that during the next year contributions will be made by members of the National Education Association and others interested in vocational education, as a result of which a much more complete and adequate report can be presented later.

The committee, therefore, earnestly urges upon all members the necessity of helpful and constructive criticism in regard to this terminology. Whether your criticism is in the form of an indorsement or dissent, it will be equally welcome. It is requested, however, that if it be a dissent it be accompanied by constructive suggestions which can be sent to the chairman, and all of which will be considered in the preparation of a subsequent report.

It is our belief that, if definitions are desirable at this time, they should be so broadly framed as to stimulate interest in the general movement, ingenuity in experimentation, and intelligence in evaluating results. When the mass of information resulting from concrete experiences has assumed sufficient proportions, the formulation of definitions will be a relatively simple matter.

F. M. L.

REGENTS' EXAMINATION IN NEW YORK CITY HIGH SCHOOLS

The advisability of using the semiannual Regents' examinations is again being warmly discussed by school men in New York City. The opponents of these examinations claim that they do not meet the special needs of New York City so well as examinations devised by the teachers who have given the courses; that they encourage uniformity of work for all types of pupils in an age and in a city in which specialization and adaptation to individual and social differences and needs are demanding diversity; that the giving of two full weeks each year to conducting the examinations is an unwarranted waste of time and money; that the real work of the schools is neglected in preparation for the examinations and demoralized for a week or two thereafter; that they do not really test students' ability; that to nullify a good class record by a few hours of writing is unfair and absurd; that the test is not, as claimed, for the purpose of testing the efficiency of schools, since the results of the tests are not actually used in the active supervision of the work in the high schools; that the different schools change their ranks so surprisingly in different tests as to prove that the tests are useless for the purpose of testing the relative efficiency of schools; that they take the responsibility off teachers for planning rational twentieth-century courses; and that they encourage inertia and retention of courses organized as presupposed in the Regents' examinations.

The special protagonist of the Regents' system in his reply to objections urged evades the issue. He simply says that the question was decided in New York several decades ago, and argues the futility of taking up a thing again that has already been settled. He assumes that the world does not change; that a decision as to what is proper for one generation applies equally well to all generations thereafter. It is not again to be taken up and reconsidered in the light of new conditions. There are no new conditions. It is a waste of time, energy, and temper, and can result only in a reconfirmation of the former decision.

Now whatever the merits or demerits of the Regents' examinations, this position of the assistant commissioner of education for secondary schools is, in the twentieth century, simply untenable. Conditions are changing—and with bewildering rapidity. A thing that was justified by conditions twenty years ago may or may not be justified by conditions today. The only possible way to find out is to re-examine the whole situation. If there is still a strong case for the Regents' examinations, this ought to be the clear outcome of such an investigation. If conditions have so changed that they are no longer justified, the examinations

ought to be discontinued. Moreover, those responsible for the examinations should be the first ones to know whether the examinations are justified, and the first to propose their discontinuance if results are found to be negative. The argument that inertia should prevail is certainly a strange one for the educational world to adduce in this era of reformulation of the purposes, means, and methods of public education.

J. F. B.

REORGANIZATION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL
SPREAD OF THE 6-6-YEAR PLAN

For some years educators have advocated a division of the elementary- and high-school periods so as to bring the break between the two phases of education at the transition period characteristic of the age of twelve instead of coming at the age of fourteen or later, as at present. A number of experiments in this type of reorganization have been tried and the movement seems to be spreading. Dr. Ayers, of the Russell Sage Foundation, in his report on the survey of the school system of Springfield, Illinois, recommends the change to the so-called 6-6-year plan. Superintendent Bauman, of Quincy, Illinois, as reported in the *Quincy Herald*, recommends the organization of ninth grades as a step in the direction of this plan. Strong impetus has been given the movement in Michigan by encouragement from the University of Michigan.

ACTION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

The faculty of the University of Michigan has enacted a piece of legislation which makes possible the organization of the high school in such a manner as to enable the student to do advanced work and to gain credit for this work toward his Bachelor's degree. The following is the text of a circular which reports this action:

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

The following report was adopted by the Faculty of the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts, June 15, 1914, and by the Regents, June 23, 1914:

To the President and Faculty of the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts:

GENTLEMEN: Your Committee on the "Reorganization of the Public School System" submits the following resolutions for your approval:

Resolved:

1. That school authorities be encouraged to incorporate the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school as an integral part of the high school, forming a six-year system.

2. That school authorities be recommended to organize the six-year high-school system into a *Junior High School* of three years and a *Senior High School* of three years as soon as local conditions will admit.

3. That graduates of six-year high-school courses be required to gain during the last three years at least eight of the fifteen units required for admission, two of which units shall be obtained during the Senior year.

4. That graduates of six-year high-school courses be permitted to apply for university credit on examination.

Resolved:

That students entering the University from a *Junior College*, organized as part of a city school system, may apply for admission on advanced standing, provided the course of study and the faculty meet the approval of the University.

Respectfully submitted

A. S. WHITNEY, *Chairman*
J. R. EFFINGER
J. L. MARKLEY
A. G. HALL
E. H. KRAUS
H. A. SANDERS
T. E. RANKIN

On the basis of a letter from Professor Whitney the interpretation of this action seems to be as follows: Seven of the fifteen units required for entrance may be gained during the junior high school, which includes what are now the first year of the high school and the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school. Four of these units can be gained in the last year of the junior high school, and it is the opinion of Professor Whitney that three entrance units can be gained during the first two years. This leaves eight entrance units still to be gained during the three years of the senior high school. If the pupil continues to do work equivalent to four units a year he will, at the time of graduation from high school, have done the equivalent of a year's work which can be applied toward the Bachelor's degree at the university.

The only restriction which is made upon the acceptance of the advanced work by the university is that the student shall pass an examination upon it. This provision is merely a recognition of the fact that such advanced work in the high schools is still in an unorganized condition.

This legislation will doubtless serve as a strong impetus to the movement for the reorganization of the high schools in the state of Michigan, since it adds to the motives furnished by the needs of the lower schools themselves the reward of economy in time in gaining the university degree.

F. N. F.

BOOK REVIEWS

Deutsches Leben. Nach ausgewählten Lesestücken. By PROFESSOR J. E. PICHON and DR. F. SATTLER. Freiburg: J. Bielefelds Verlag, 1913. Pp. 148. M. 2.

This textbook deals exclusively with the direct method, and begins with extremely simple exercises, which are restricted to short descriptions and narrations, supplemented by many figurative illustrations. The exercises become gradually more difficult and are devoted in the latter part of the book to the discussion of various features of German life. It seems to be a very useful volume.

Lezioni pratiche per lo studio della lingua italiana. By J. E. PICHON and GIUSEPPE MOCCIA. Freiburg: J. Bielefelds Verlag, 1913. Pp. 204. M. 2.

This is the Italian volume of a series of introductory grammars for various languages, based entirely on the natural method and exclusively written in the foreign tongue. While these grammars can be used very well in the classroom, they would be impractical for individual study without an additional dictionary. The same series contains German, French, and Spanish readers, all based on the same method. They are all richly illustrated.

Der Bibliothekar. Schwank in vier Akten. By GUSTAV VON MOSER. Edited with Exercises, Notes, and Vocabulary by FREDERICK W. C. LIEDER. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 218. \$0.45.

This delightful little drama, which has been already published by various textbook concerns, gives in this edition the material for a very useful reader. The notes are ample and sufficient and a series of German questions for conversation, covering every scene of the play besides a number of composition exercises, are added. An exhaustive vocabulary increases the usefulness of this volume.

Im Deutschen Reich. Handbuch der deutschen Umgangssprache. By O. LEOPOLD. Freiburg: J. Bielefelds Verlag, 1913. Pp. 272. \$2.50.

This book belongs to a series of modern-language texts based on the direct method and using exclusively the German vernacular. The text is devoted to so-called practical topics, that is, the vocabulary is chosen from the viewpoint of everyday life. It is to be desired that such readers should find introduction in American schools.

A Scientific German Reader. Edited with Notes and Vocabulary by GEORGE THEODORE DIPPOLD. Revised ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. liii+361. \$1.00.

The book contains a number of well-selected German texts in chemistry, physics, geology, anthropology, technical science, and political economy, to which are added exercises for translating from English into German. There are extensive notes and a vocabulary. The texts are supplemented by good illustrations.

The *Scientific Reader* was primarily intended for students of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and therefore the selections are made with special reference to the needs of engineering students. It will also prove very useful for other colleges and universities where courses in scientific German are given, because it covers a wide range of subjects and will acquaint the student with a large portion of the scientific German terminology.

Germelshausen. By FRIEDRICH GERSTÄCKER. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Exercises according to the Direct Method, and Vocabulary by RALPH WOMELSDORF HALLER. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co. Pp. 123. \$0.40.

There are already several American editions of this delightful little story, but Haller has justified this new reprint by the preparation of a very careful selection of exercises which will greatly facilitate the introduction of the book in college and high-school classes. The more difficult passages are explained by notes and a very useful vocabulary.

Kindertränen. Zwei Erzählungen. By ERNST VON WILDENBRUCH. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Exercises according to the Direct Method, and Vocabulary by CAROLINE KREYKENBOHM. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co. Pp. 192. \$0.50.

Wildenbruch's two stories are made the basis for practice in oral and written exercises according to the direct method of teaching German. The book is especially adapted for use in second-year German classes. A large vocabulary increases the usefulness of the book.

Die Sieben Reisen Sinbads des Seemannes. Bearbeitet von ALBERT LUDWIG GRIMM. Edited with Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary by K. C. H. DRECHSELL. New York, Cincinnati, Chicago: American Book Company. Pp. 188.

It was a very good idea to render a school edition of this interesting fairy tale instead of re-editing one of the common school texts which have been already published so many times. The book is richly illustrated and supplemented by exercises, notes, and vocabulary. The text can be recommended as third-year reading.

ADOLF C. VON NOÉ

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The Teaching of Spelling. By HENRY SUZZALLO. (Riverside Educational Monographs.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. xii+129.

This monograph gives a comprehensive account of the position of spelling in the curriculum and of the problems connected with its teaching. The problems of teaching include the choice of materials and the methods of teaching the child to learn the words which have been selected as suitable. Stress is laid upon the historical development in the case of each problem and alternative methods which exist in current practice are weighed on the basis of the psychology of the learning process.

Individuality. By E. L. THORNDIKE. (Riverside Educational Monographs.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. xi+56.

A condensation and simplification of the discussion of individual differences as it appears in his *Educational Psychology*.

Interest and Effort in Education. By JOHN DEWEY. (Riverside Educational Monographs.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. x+102.

An elaboration and application of the author's well-known theory of interest which first appeared in the second Herbart Society *Yearbook*. The present discussion, besides being somewhat more systematic and clearer than the earlier account, is of additional value in that it shows how the principle of interest applies in various forms of school activity. We are fortunate in having this elaborated form of Professor Dewey's fundamentally important contribution to educational thought.

Everyday Problems in Teaching. By M. V. O'SHEA. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co. Pp. 388+xliv.

This book is, as its title indicates, a very practical treatment of the problems which confront the teacher in the schoolroom. In general the mode of treatment is first to raise a problem, then to describe the best method of meeting it, and finally to add some theoretical discussion of the basis of the choice of method. The book is loosely organized and the style extremely easy. It is intended to serve as a practical guide to the inexperienced teacher for immediate application and for this purpose will be found useful.

Mental Fatigue. By Tsuru Irai. New York: Teachers College, 1912. Pp. 115.

An experimental study of the effect of mental work on pulse rate and bodily temperature, on the feelings of fatigue, and on the decrease in efficiency of mental processes. Some of the results obtained by previous investigators have led to a depreciation of the fatigue effects of mental work on the physiological and mental processes. The present study leads to a rather more conservative view, in that considerable fatigue effects were found.

F. N. F.

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- Edwards, G. M. *Salamis in Easy Attic Greek*. Cambridge University Press, 1913. Pp. xvi+76.
- Grumbine, Harvey Carson. *Stories from Browning*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914. Pp. xiv+338. \$1.50.
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- Haggard, Sir H. Rider. *Lysbeth. A Tale of the Dutch*. Introduction and notes by J. B. D. Godfrey. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1914. Pp. viii+230. \$0.50.
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CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, University of Chicago

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- Davis, Anne. Occupations and industries open to children between fourteen and sixteen years of age. Educa. Bi-mo. 8:377-92. (Je. '14.)
- Dew, Louise E. Making cripples into workingmen. Tech. World M. 21:842-43, 936. (Ag. '14.)
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¹ *Abbreviations.*—*Atlan.*, Atlantic Monthly; *Educa. Bi-mo.*, Educational Bi-monthly; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *English J.*, English Journal; *Indust. Arts M.*, Industrial Arts Magazine; *J. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *Outl.*, Outlook; *Pedagog. Sem.*, Pedagogical Seminary; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Psychol. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *Tech. World M.*, Technical World Magazine.

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- Fish, Susan Anderson. What should pupils know in English when they enter the high school? *English J.* 3:166-75. (Mr. '14.)
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